

**CONSTRUCTING A PSYCHOSOCIAL PROFILE FOR ENHANCING THE CAREER
SUCCESS OF SOUTH AFRICAN PROFESSIONAL WOMEN**

by

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DECLARATION

I, Ndayiziveyi Takawira, student number 30521009, declare that this thesis, “**Constructing a psychosocial profile for enhancing the career success of South African professional women**”, is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or have quoted from have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. The thesis has not in part or in full, been previously submitted for any other degree or examination at this or any other university.

I further declare that ethical clearance (see attached ethical clearance certificate in Appendix to conduct the research has been obtained from the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa. Permission to conduct the research has been obtained from the participating organisations. I also declare that the study has been carried out in strict accordance with the Policy for Research Ethics of the University of South Africa (Unisa). I took great care that the research was conducted with the highest integrity, taking into account Unisa’s Policy for Infringement and Plagiarism.

Ndayiziveyi Takawira

Date

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ABSTRACT/SUMMARY

CONSTRUCTING A PSYCHOSOCIAL PROFILE FOR ENHANCING THE CAREER SUCCESS OF SOUTH AFRICAN PROFESSIONAL WOMEN

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The research focused on constructing a psychosocial profile for the career development practices of professional women. The relationship dynamics between the individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) were investigated and whether the constructs significantly related to individuals' experiences of career satisfaction when controlling for age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level. A cross-sectional quantitative survey was conducted on a purposive sample of professional women (N = 606) from various South African organisations. Inferential statistics (multiple regressions, canonical correlation analysis, structural equation modelling, hierarchical moderated regression and tests for significant differences) revealed core elements of the empirically manifested psychosocial profile. Participants' career preoccupations and perceptions of organisational support were significant predictors of career satisfaction, along with age, race and job level. Managing own emotions, career control and self-efficacy were highlighted as important psychological resources in strengthening career satisfaction. Perceived organisational support and social support functioned as significant mechanisms in buffering the negative effect of high career preoccupations on levels of career satisfaction, and strengthening the link between emotional intelligence, career adaptability, and self-efficacy and career satisfaction. Significant mean differences were observed for age, race and job level groups regarding career preoccupations, perceived organisational support and career satisfaction. In addition, significant mean differences were observed for marital status, total monthly income and education level groups regarding career preoccupations, perceived organisational support and career satisfaction. On a theoretical level, the study advanced career theory for the career development of professional women by identifying the relationships found between the hypothesised psychosocial profile elements and career satisfaction. On the empirical level the study contributed towards constructing a psychosocial profile that informs the career development and satisfaction of professional women. On a

practical level, the study proposes guidelines for enhancing the career satisfaction and success of professional women.

KEY TERMS

Career adaptability, career development, career satisfaction, career success, emotional intelligence, perceived organisational support, psychosocial career preoccupations, psychosocial profile, professional women, self-efficacy, social support.

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CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

This research focused on constructing a psychosocial profile for enhancing the career success of women. This chapter gives an outline of constructs of relevance in constructing such a profile, provides the background to and motivation for the intended research leading to the formulation of the problem statement, research questions and research aims. The paradigm perspectives that guided the research are then explained followed by a discussion of the research design and research methods, with reference to the various steps in the research process. Finally, the chapter layout is provided. The chapter concludes with a summary of the scientific overview.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

The context of this research was the career development of professional women and perceptions of their psychosocial attributes and career success (satisfaction) in a diverse South African context. The present research focused on constructing a psychosocial profile for enhancing women's career satisfaction as a measure of their subjective career success by investigating the relationship between their psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), social perceptions (perceived organisational support and social support) and their career satisfaction. Exploring the relationship dynamics between these constructs in order to better understand the factors influencing the career success (satisfaction) of professional women has become crucial given the legislative reforms in terms of equity in South Africa, as well as the increasing participation of women in the world of work (Department of Women, South Africa, 2015; Mathur-Helm, 2005; Orser, Riding, & Stanley, 2012). Therefore, knowledge of a unique dynamic relationship between these construct attributes will allow the researcher to construct a psychosocial profile that may potentially inform the industrial psychologists and HR professionals on the career advancement interventions and career development practices in the diverse South African context.

At the start of the twentieth century, women were very much seen as second-class citizens (Tinklin, Croxford, Ducklin, & Frame, 2005), but for the last century women's participation at all levels of management including most occupational fields has increased (Department of Women, South Africa, 2015; Evers & Sieverding, 2013; Orser et al., 2012). The proportion of women participating in the labour force has increased remarkably (Miles, 2013; Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011; Van Vianen & Fischer, 2002) and the most successful organisations will

be those that continue to develop and champion the empowerment of women (Department of Women, South Africa, 2015; Hewlett & Luce, 2005; O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005).

Inequality affects women in the workplace, much of which relate to human resource (HR) policies such as promotion, career progression and skills development (Bosch, 2011). South Africa implemented equal opportunity and affirmative action legislation to redress the past imbalances due to apartheid by developing policies and strategies aimed at applying equal opportunities and improving the status of women in the workplace (Employment Equity Amendment Act [EEAA], No. 47 of 2013; Mathur-Helm, 2004). However, social and cultural assumptions persistently create barriers to women's employment, promotion opportunities, fulfilment, career development and success (Department of Women, South Africa, 2015; Mathur-Helm, 2005; Maxwell, Ogden, & McTavish, 2007; Smith, Caputi, & Crittenden, 2012; Stamarski & Son Hing, 2015). In addition, gender bias and discrimination in the workforce are creating barriers for women to achieve career success irrespective of equity legislation (Herrbach & Mignonac, 2012). Researchers have cited gender discrimination as the most frequent barrier to the career development of women (Linge, 2016; Metz & Tharenou, 2001; Patwardhan, Mayya & Joshi, 2016). Similarly, Herrbach and Mignonac (2012) found that perceived gender discrimination is negatively related to overall career success.

The careers of women are embedded in larger social life contexts (family responsibilities, child-bearing urgency or other spousal factors) which have significant implications for enhancing work performance and career advancement (Linge, 2015; O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005). According to Cross and Linehan (2006), the careers of women are more complex than their male counterparts due to expected traditional family roles or responsibilities. These complexities often motivate women to opt-out of the labour force as a result of family responsibilities and poor gender-related policies (Linge, 2015; Powell & Graves, 2003; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). Moreover, traditional organisational cultures mirror some gender inequalities and competitive hierarchical relationships founded on masculine values often characterised by independence, rational engagement and competitive achievement (Cabrera, 2007; Stamarski & Son Hing, 2015; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). On the contrary, femininity values that encourage relational self, emotional engagement, maintaining balances in life activities, participation, and collaboration are not promoted (Herrbach & Mignonac, 2012; Loyola, 2016; Van Vianen & Fischer, 2002).

Given the unique needs of women employees, fair organisational policies and practices are necessary to promote career advancement opportunities (Heilman, 2015; Linge, 2015; Singh, et al., 2013). Literature research suggested that work-family policies, which are gender-neutral and seek to balance work and home life are necessary to maintain successful careers with the

added benefit of retaining highly talented professional women in organisations (Herrbach & Mignonac, 2012; Linge, 2015; Miles, 2013; Stone & Lovejoy, 2004). Such organisational policies or practices create work environments that contribute to desirable outcomes in the form of enhanced work performance, personal development and career satisfaction of women who choose integrated work-family lives (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005; Stamarski & Son Hing, 2015).

A literature review suggested that individuals' perceptions of career success are wide-ranging, citing salary, job title, career advancement, rewards and recognition, goal achievement and work-life balance as common (Dai & Song, 2016; Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). According to Judge and Hurst (2008), career success refers to real and perceived achievements that individuals accumulate owing to their work experiences. Career success is viewed as an occurrence with objective (extrinsic) and subjective (intrinsic) indicators, each of which has a trajectory that is created over time (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Judge & Hurst, 2008; Maurer & Chapman, 2013; Shahibudin, 2015).

Career success contributes to desirable outcomes in terms of objective or extrinsic indicators (salary and job title) (Ng et al., 2005; Shahibudin, 2015). In contrast, intrinsic or subjective career success is regarded as an individual's subjective work experiences consisting of perceptions, attitudes and psychological experiences (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee, Bergh, & Schreuder, 2010). These perceptions or experiences are characterised by job and career satisfaction, a sense of purpose and meaningful work activities (Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012; Heslin, 2003; Ng & Feldman, 2014). The core focus of the present study was subjective career success as measured by career satisfaction (i.e. achievement in career, meeting overall career goals and income, goal advancement and development of new skills) (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990; Hofmans, Dries, & Pepermans, 2008; Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995; Shahibudin, 2015).

Empirical research on individual differences suggests the influence of psychosocial attributes on career success (Coetzee, 2016; Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2010; Hogan, Chamorro-Premuzic, & Kaiser, 2013). The notion of the concept psychosocial is based on the combined interpretation from the Oxford advanced learner's dictionary (2013), which defines psychological as "connected with a person's mind and the way in which it works" (p. 1183) and social as "connected to society" (p. 1413). Combined, psychosocial becomes the person's mind and the way in which it works when interacting with society. The term psychosocial is then expressed as an interaction between the individual's psychological attributes and the societal conditions for managing occupational and developmental tasks (Savickas & Porfeli,

2012; Stansfeld & Candy, 2006; Theorell, 2007). In this regard, the concept of psychosocial attributes in the occupational environment represents the employee's dispositional attributes and experiences of the work environment (Coetzee, 2016; Savickas, 2013; Theorell, 2007).

Over the years most research studies about psychosocial attributes have been investigated with emphasis on health outcomes (Hauke, Flintrop, Brun, & Rugulies, 2011; Pejtersen, Kristensen, Borg, & Bjorner, 2010; Piko, 2006; Wahlstedt, Norbäck, Wieslander, Skoglund, & Runeson, 2010). For instance, existing psychosocial research pertaining to the individual and occupational environment is focused in the context of emotional disorders and ill-health (Cilliers, 2011; Hauke et al., 2011; Pejtersen et al., 2010). More recently, research on psychosocial attributes has put emphasis on positive desirable outcomes in the occupational environment (Coetzee, 2016; Hobfoll, 2011; Savickas, 2013). Researchers suggest that individuals with high levels of psychosocial attributes tend to experience positive outcomes, such as successful adaption to various spheres of life or changing work circumstances than individuals with low levels of psychosocial attributes (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Savickas, 2013). Thematically, the notion of psychosocial attributes as it pertained to the present study investigated the positive outcomes of psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy (as a composite set of psychological attributes), and perceived organisational and social support (as social perceptions) in relation to career satisfaction as a measure of their subjective career success.

In this study, emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, and self-efficacy were viewed as the individuals' psychological attributes that function as important resources in their career development. 'Emotional intelligence' refers to a combination of abilities to correctly perceive and express emotion, the ability to access and regulate feelings with understanding, and to engage in emotional knowledge and problem solving that help to pay attention to and regulate emotions in order to benefit oneself and others (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008). Individuals high in emotional intelligence are better able to engage in emotional problem solving that gives them the ability to pay attention to use, understand and manage emotions to potentially benefit themselves and others (Mayer et al., 2008). A study by Zainal, Nasurdin and Hoo (2011) found a significant positive relationship between the dimensions of emotional intelligence and career success.

Career adaptability is considered a psychosocial construct denoting self-regulation strengths or capacities, which individuals utilise for coping with current and anticipated tasks, transitions, and traumas in their occupational roles, which to some degree, whether big or small, alter their social integration (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Competencies of career adaptability are

suggested to relate to key vocational developmental tasks involving a primary adaptive goal which, when achieved, builds a foundation for career success (Coetzee, Ferreira, & Potgieter, 2015). For instance, a study by Guan, Zhou, Ye, Jiang and Zhou (2015) found that career adaptability played a unique role in predicting salary and career satisfaction.

Psychosocial career preoccupations are referred to as a 'mental state of having certain issues concerning one's career at the forefront of one's mind at a particular time' (Coetzee, 2016). In the world of work, change and the concomitant transitions require adaptation which may result in specific career concerns that preoccupy the individual's mind at a particular point in his or her career life (Coetzee, 2015). For instance, employees' psychosocial career preoccupations may potentially be a consequence of specific work-related needs (e.g. career satisfaction) within a specific socio-cultural work context (Coetzee, 2016).

Self-efficacy relates to an individual's belief about his or her ability to engage in a specific task and to be able to complete it (Michaelides, 2008). Individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs set high career goals, put in extra effort, and pursue career strategies that lead to the attainment of those goals (Ballout, 2009). Pachulicz, Schmitt and Kuljanin (2008) confirm that self-efficacy is positively related to career satisfaction, such that individuals high in this trait also reported high subjective career success.

Perceived organisational support involves employees' perception about the degree to which the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). According to Latif and Sher (2012), employees are concerned about how their organisations value their work and to what extent they are valued by the organisation. Chen (2011) suggested that supportive supervisors affect the willingness of individuals to engage in career development activities, which are important for subordinate performance and career success. In that view, Pachulicz et al. (2008) found that the more support an individual perceived from the organisation, the higher his or her reported subjective career success.

Social support is viewed as verbal and nonverbal communication between the receiver and provider of information to reduce uncertainty about the situation, the self, the other, or the relationship for the purpose of enhancing a perception of personal control in one's life experience (Albrecht & Adelman, 1987). Individuals with high perceived social support believe that they can count on their family and friends for assistance such as listening, expressing warmth and affection or offering relevant advice (Lakey, 2007). Researchers found that women

with high levels of social support tended to experience success in their careers (Jepson, 2010; Nabi, 2000).

Given the increasing participation of women in the workforce, the majority of women remain clustered in traditionally female-dominated occupations with low pay and fewer career development opportunities than men (Linge, 2015; Loyola, 2016; Nyberg Hanson, Leineweber, & Johansson, 2015). Moreover, the barriers affecting the career success of women, and in particular, a lack of career advancement, promotion opportunities and organisational support are of concern in the workplace (Linge, 2015; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006; Mathur-Helm, 2005; Maxwell et al., 2007; Smith et al., 2012). It is therefore imperative that the relationship between the psychosocial attribute (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction among professional women in the South African context be considered when developing career development practices.

Age, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education appear to influence individuals' emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support, including career satisfaction, significantly. El Badawy and Magdy (2015) found a positive relationship between age and emotional intelligence. Older employees were more socially intelligent and better able to manage their feelings and understand others' feelings, including body language than young ones (El Badawy & Magdy, 2015). In addition, Zacher (2014b) found that age predicted change in overall career adaptability. Amatuucci and Crawley (2011) found that age differences are significantly related to self-efficacy with older women high in self-efficacy than young ones. Khurshid and Anjum (2012) revealed that younger teachers express low perceived organisational support than older teachers. A study by Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009) also indicated that older managerial and professional employees were provided opportunities to upgrade or acquire new skills than younger employees.

Research studies found positive relationships between race and emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy and social support. Pillay, Viviers, and Mayer (2013) found that black respondents showed significantly higher scores of emotional intelligence than their white counterparts. The findings by Coetzee and Stoltz (2015) indicated that black participants showed higher levels of career adaptability than their white counterparts. Amatuucci and Crawley (2011) found that racial differences are significantly related to self-efficacy with white women higher in self-efficacy than African-American respondents. Sloan, Newhouse, and

Thompson (2013) found that both black and white co-workers experience similar emotional benefits of social support.

In relation to marital status, a study by Khurshid and Anjum (2012) found that married teachers showed high perceived organisational support than unmarried teachers. Mashhady, Fallah, and Gaskaree (2012) noted that married teachers' self-efficacy was significantly higher than that of single teachers. Ferreira (2012) found married participants to have high levels of career adaptability in their careers or jobs than their single counterparts.

A study by Zacher (2014b) showed that education differentially predicted change over time in one or more of the four career adaptability dimensions. Research studies suggest that age, marital status, education and having children predict objective and subjective career success (De Pater, Judge, & Scott, 2014; Linge, 2015; Nyberg et al., 2015). Chen (2012) found education to be positively related to a higher salary whereas organisational support is significantly related to career development as well as employee career satisfaction. In view of the preceding findings, this study explored how women from various biographical groups (age, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differed with regard to emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support, including career satisfaction. An understanding of differences between biographical groups is necessary in the diverse culture of South Africa.

In summary, given the increasing participation of women in the workforce and the multiple roles interconnected with their careers, there seem to be a paucity of research about the effect that psychosocial resources have on the career satisfaction of professional women in a diverse South African context (Martin & Barnard, 2013; Pillay, 2009). Moreover, previous research has focused on the constructs of the psychosocial profile separately or in relation to other variables (Ballout, 2009; Coetzee, 2015; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Lakey, 2007; Mayer et al., 2008; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Shahibudin, 2015). Hence, research on the relationship between the variables in the present study could contribute to the career development and satisfaction among professional women in the diverse South African workforce.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Against the above-mentioned background, this research study aimed to extend research on the career developmental practices of professional women by empirically investigating the relationship dynamics between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career

adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as these manifest among professional women in the South African context. Despite the potential value that could be added by knowledge of the variables of relevance to the present study, the problem was that it was not clear from the literature how these variables are interrelated in the South African context. There seemed to be a paucity of research addressing the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction (perception of subjective career success) among professional women, especially in the diverse South African context.

Exploring the relationship dynamics between these constructs in order to understand the factors influencing the career success (satisfaction) of professional women has become crucial, given the legislative reforms in terms of employment equity in South Africa, as well as the increasing participation of women in the world of work (Republic of South Africa, 2013; Mathur-Helm, 2004). In all aspects of employment, women's career aspirations have progressed more to use their skills and talents to achieve economic and social status (Shrestha, 2016). In addition, their career decisions focus on work that provides personal satisfaction, independence and professional growth (Shrestha, 2016). Therefore, knowledge of a unique dynamic relationship between the constructs of this study will allow the researcher to construct a psychosocial profile that could contribute to the body of knowledge, which may potentially inform the industrial psychologists and HR professionals on the career advancement and development practices to enhance the career success (satisfaction) of professional women in the diverse South African context.

This research intended to construct an overall psychosocial profile to enhance the career satisfaction of professional women. It is proposed that individuals with a particular psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) will be capable to engage in career development activities, which may influence (increase) perceptions of career satisfaction as a measure of subjective career success. Furthermore, individuals from different age, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level will have different levels of psychosocial attributes and experiences of career satisfaction. Ultimately, the empirical investigation of these relationship dynamics may assist in developing interventions, which may help to strengthen the overall psychosocial profile of professional women, which in turn, may be useful to industrial psychologists and HR professionals in career development practices.

A review of the current literature on emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy, psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction indicated the following research problems:

- Theoretical models do not clarify the relationship between emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy, psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support (as a composite set of psychosocial-related attributes) and career satisfaction in one single study.
- In the context of a psychosocial profile for enhancing the career success of professional women within the South African context, industrial and organisational psychologists, as well as HR practitioners, require knowledge about the nature of the theoretical and observed relationship between these variables, as the knowledge that may be gained by the research may potentially bring new insights that could inform career development practices for professional women from diverse biographical.
- There seems to be a paucity of research that investigated the psychosocial attributes that could potentially contribute towards professional women's perception of career satisfaction in organisations, and also how their biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education levels) contribute to the dynamic interplay between these variables, especially in a diverse South African work context. In this regard, the present research is breaking new ground in its approach to contributing to the career development and satisfaction literature.

The problem statement led to the following general research questions:

- What are the relationship dynamics between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction?
- What are the elements of the psychosocial profile that manifest from the relationship dynamics?
- How can the manifested psychosocial profile be used to inform career development practice for enhancing the career satisfaction of professional women in a diverse South African context?

From the above, the following specific research questions were formulated in terms of the literature review and the empirical study:

1.2.1 Research questions arising from the literature review

Research question 1: How does the literature conceptualise the career development and success of women within the contemporary employment context?

Research question 2: How are the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction conceptualised and explained by theoretical models in the literature?

Research question 3: What is the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction and how can this relationship be explained in terms of an integrated theoretical model?

Research question 4: How do individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, monthly income and education level) influence the manifestation of their psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction?

Research question 5: What are the implications of a psychosocial profile for contemporary career development practices and the career satisfaction of professional women?

1.2.2 Research questions with regard to the empirical study

In terms of the empirical study, the following specific research questions are formulated:

Research question 1: What is the nature of the statistical interrelationships between the individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context?

Research question 2: Do individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predict their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction?

Research question 3: Are the psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) as a composite set of latent independent variables significantly related to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction as a composite set of latent dependent variables?

Research question 4: Do the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction?

Research question 5: Based on the overall inter-statistical relationships between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors, does the hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile have a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model?

Research question 6: Is there a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction?

Research question 7: Do individuals from various biographical groups (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction factors?

Research question 8: Which recommendations can be formulated for industrial and organisational psychologists and HR professionals for contemporary career development practices of professional women and for possible future research based on the findings of this research project?

1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

From the above research questions, the following general and specific aims were formulated.

1.3.1 General aim of the research

The general aim of this research was to determine the relationship dynamics between individuals' psychosocial-related dispositional attributes (constituting emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction in order to establish the elements of the psychosocial profile that manifests from the observed relationship dynamics. The research further aimed to determine whether individuals from different biographical groups (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differ significantly regarding their psychosocial-related dispositional attributes and their career satisfaction. Furthermore, the research aimed to outline the implications of an overall psychosocial profile for contemporary career development aimed at enhancing career satisfaction among professional women in the diverse South African context.

1.3.2 Specific aims of the research

The following specific aims were formulated for the literature review and the empirical study:

1.3.2.1 *Specific aims–literature review*

In terms of the literature review, the specific aims are:

Research aim 1: To conceptualise the career development and success of women within the contemporary employment context.

Research aim 2: To conceptualise the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support), and career satisfaction as explained by theoretical models in the literature.

Research aim 3: To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial

career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction and to explain the relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model.

Research aim 4: To conceptualise how individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) influence the manifestation of their psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their perception of career satisfaction.

Research aim 5: To evaluate the implications of a psychosocial profile for the contemporary career development practices of professional women critically.

1.3.2.2 Specific aims–empirical study

In terms of the empirical study, the specific aims are:

Research aim 1: To investigate empirically the nature of the statistical interrelationship between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context.

Research aim 2: To assess empirically whether individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race and marital status, number of children job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predict their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction.

Research aim 3: To assess whether psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), as a composite set of latent independent variables, significantly relate to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

Research aim 4: To investigate empirically whether the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.

Research aim 5: To assess whether the hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile has a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model as based on the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors.

Research aim 6: To assess empirically whether there is a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction.

Research aim 7: To assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction factors.

Research aim 8: To formulate recommendations for industrial and organisational psychologists and HR professionals for the contemporary career development practices of professional women and for possible future research based on the findings of this research project.

1.4 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE

The factors underlying the problem of developing a psychosocial profile for employee career development and satisfaction seem to be varied and complex. Many factors may either hinder or support the development process. The role of psychosocial attributes such as emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction in the development of a psychosocial profile for employee career development and satisfaction is complex and not yet well researched together and in a single study in the diverse South African workplace context.

This research is a breaking new ground in investigating the relationship dynamics between emotional intelligence (as defined by Goleman, 1995 and Salovey & Mayer, 1990), career adaptability (as defined by Savickas, 2005), psychosocial career preoccupations (as defined by Coetzee, 2014b and Super, 1990;) self-efficacy (as defined by Bandura, 1995), perceived organisational support (as defined by Eisenberger et al., 1986), social support (as defined by Albrecht & Adelman, 1987 and Shumaker & Brownell, 1984), and career satisfaction (as defined by Greenhaus et al., 1990) in the career development context.

1.4.1 Potential contribution on a theoretical level

On a theoretical level, this study may prove useful in identifying the relationships found between the constructs emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support (independent psychosocial attributes) and career satisfaction (dependent attribute) and the way they relate to women's career development in the dynamic world of work. Where significant relationships are found, the findings will be useful in the construction of a hypothetical theoretical psychosocial profile for contemporary career development of professional women, which can be tested empirically. In addition, exploring how individuals' biographical characteristics influence the manifestation and development of these attributes, may prove useful in understanding the contemporary career development of women in the diverse South African context.

1.4.2 Potential contribution on an empirical level

On an empirical level, this research may contribute to the research literature by constructing an empirically tested psychosocial profile, which could be used to inform career development practices. If no relationships are found between the variables, then the usefulness of this study would be restricted to the elimination of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support as psychosocial attributes to enhance the career success of professional women in the diverse South African context. Researchers can then focus their efforts on other research studies that could yield significant evidence to help provide answers about attributes that are necessary for the career satisfaction of professional women.

In addition, the study may point out whether individuals from different age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education groups differ in terms of their psychosocial attribute constructs and career satisfaction. In view of the current South African context characterised by cultural diversity and varying life stages among women, these results may be valuable in the construction of an empirically tested psychosocial profile by identifying differences in terms of the biographical information that reflects the needs of a diverse group of women employees.

1.4.3 Potential contribution on a practical level

On a practical level, industrial and organisational psychologists and HR professionals may develop a better understanding of the constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support, and career satisfaction in considering the psychosocial profile that could influence the career development of women positively. Consequently, if this is achieved, the outcomes would be important enough to justify the continuance of this study. Positive outcomes from the research could include raising awareness of the fact that women differ in terms of their psychosocial attributes and perception of career satisfaction and that, in order to promote career development among professional women, each individual needs to be treated in a manner that is appropriate to her. Another positive outcome would be the realisation of the way in which professional women's psychosocial attributes influence their level of career satisfaction.

The findings may prove useful where relationships between these constructs are found for future researchers exploring the possibility of facilitating career development and satisfaction of professional women in the South African context. Furthermore, the research results may contribute to the body of knowledge relating to psychosocial attributes that influence the career development and satisfaction of professional women in a multicultural diverse South African context.

This research was breaking new ground because to date, there is no existing study on the relationship dynamics between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction of professional women in a single study. Studies on the overall relationship between these constructs are limited, as is research on the construction of a psychosocial profile, especially among professional women in the diverse South African context.

1.5 RESEARCH MODEL

The seminal research model by Mouton and Marais (1996) served as a framework for this research. The model seeks to incorporate five dimensions of social science research, namely, the sociological, ontological, teleological, epistemological and methodological dimensions which are conceptually linked as one and the same into a research process framework (Mouton & Marais, 1996; Scotland, 2012). First, the **sociological** dimension is viewed as a joint or collaborative activity that conforms to the conditions of a specific research community that adheres to research ethical implications (Mouton & Marais, 1996). The **ontological** dimension

is always directed at the aspects of social reality, and this reality is referred to as the 'research domain of social sciences', which may be regarded as encompassing measurable behaviour (Mouton & Marais, 1996). The **teleological** dimension is the practice of science that is intentional and goal-directed for a given research project (Mouton & Marais, 1996). The **epistemic** dimension may be regarded as the key to social sciences, and is seen as the embodiment of the ideal science, namely the quest for truth (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Lastly, **methodological** assumptions in the social sciences are regarded as objective by virtue of them being balanced, critical, unbiased, controlled and systematic (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Social science research attempts to explain and predict behaviour (Levin & Fox, 2011).

According to Mouton and Marais (1996), social science research is a collaborative human activity of which the social reality is studied objectively with the intention of gaining a valid understanding of it. The model is described as a systems theoretical model (see Mouton & Marais, 1996) and has three subsystems (the intellectual climate, the market of intellectual resources and the research process itself). These subsystems interact with each other and relate to the research domain of a specific discipline (Mouton & Marais, 1996). In the present study, the specific disciplinary domain was industrial and organisational psychology (IOP).

1.6 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

In line with the intended goal of this research, the term 'paradigm' refers to the explicit or implicit representation of a particular worldview, which comprises a researcher's beliefs, values and methodological assumptions (Jordaan & Jordaan, 1995; O'Neil & Koekemoer, 2016). According to Mouton and Marais (1996), a paradigm standpoint refers to the multiple meta-theoretical assumptions, beliefs and values, which are fundamental to the theories and methodologies in this research. Mouton and Marais (1996) suggest that a paradigm in social science includes accepted theories, models, the body of research and the methodologies of a specific perspective. Furthermore, a paradigm is a comprehensive belief system, world view or framework that guides research and practice in a specific field (Willis, 2007). Hence, the present study was conducted in the field of IOP.

1.6.1 The intellectual climate

Intellectual climate refers to a variety of meta-theoretical values and beliefs that are held by those practising in a particular discipline or field of study (Mouton & Marais, 1996). For the purpose of this study, the assumptions were drawn from the viewpoints of industrial and organisational psychology (IOP). Thematically, the constructs of emotional intelligence, career

adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support, and career satisfaction were relevant to this study. The literature review is presented from the humanistic, cognitive-behaviouristic, behaviour developmental and existential paradigm, while the empirical study is presented from the post-positivist research paradigm.

1.6.1.1 *Literature review*

The literature is presented from the humanistic, cognitive-behaviouristic, behaviour developmental and existential paradigm.

(a) *Humanistic paradigm*

The humanistic paradigm gives prominence to personal choices, self-determination, conscious experiences and self-actualising potential for personal growth (Joseph, 2008). According to Nevid, Rathus, and Greene (2006), the basic assumptions underlying the humanistic paradigm are as follows:

- *Conscious experiences*: An understanding of the individual's life experiences, including conscious experiences that shape and give meaning of the world.
- *Self-actualisation and self-determination*: Human beings strive to become all that they are capable of to reach their full potential and experience personal growth.
- *Personal choices*: This refers to an awareness of genuine feelings and subjective experiences that help the individual to make meaningful choices in life.
- *Human nature of noble worth*: Human beings are inherently good and should be valued as having basic worth.

Thematically, the humanistic theory (Joseph, 2008) relates to the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction. Higher levels of psychological attributes allow internal direction, taking responsibility for own future, and motivation to develop and reach one's full potential in order to experience contentment and satisfaction (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011).

(b) Cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm

This paradigm perspective focuses on the role of learning and observing behaviour and incorporates roles for both situational and cognitive variables in determining behaviour (Nevid et al., 2006). Behaviourists argue that all behaviours can be learned or unlearned by varying stimuli in the form of positive or negative reinforcements (O’Leary, 2007). The learning part of the theory is a key aspect of the change model (see Bandura, 2012) which stipulates how individuals acquire knowledge clusters; cognitive, social, and emotional tendencies; and behavioural competencies (Bandura, 1986, 1997, 2012). Bandura (2001a) introduced the cognitive perspective which encompasses intentionality and forethought, self-regulation by self-reactive influence, and self-reflectiveness about one’s capabilities, quality of functioning and the meaning and purpose of one’s life pursuits.

The Bandura (2001a) theory emphasises how cognitive, behavioural, personal and environmental factors interact to determine motivation and behaviour (Crothers, Hughes, & Morine, 2008). According to Bandura (2004), people form intentions that include future-directed plans, setting personal goals, anticipating likely outcomes of prospective actions to guide and motivate efforts, adopting personal standards that monitor and regulate actions, and taking individual and collective responsibility to shape the character of one’s life and social systems. The theory also emphasises self-efficacy beliefs, formation of intentions and outcome expectations as cognitive processes that are believed to facilitate specific career behaviours (Bandura, 2012; Constatine, Wallace, & Kindaichi, 2005).

Thematically, the cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm relates to psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction. The cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm theory (Bandura, 2012; Sharf, 2014) implies that career development and satisfaction are consequences of a combination of personal attributes, contextual, cognitive and social factors that have an influence on career–interest formation, goal development and performance (Constatine et al., 2005; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994).

(c) Behavioural developmental paradigm

The primary objective of the behavioural paradigm points to human beings as products of environmental influences that shape and manipulate their behaviour (Nevid et al., 2006). Further, scholars in this paradigm argue that the individual’s experiences and the systematic application of learning principles help shape and change human behaviour (Shields &

Bredfeldt, 2001; Nevid et al., 2006). Consequently, the aim is to shape behaviour through modeling so as to accrue collective experiences and developing predictable behaviour (Shields & Bredfeldt, 2001; Nevid et al., 2006).

Thematically, the behaviouristic paradigm relates to the psychological attributes (self-efficacy), social perceptions (perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction. The behaviouristic paradigm implies that career development and satisfaction are products of psychological and social influences that manipulate and shape human behaviour to adapt successfully to difficult situations and experience greater harmony between work and personal life (Sharf, 2014).

(d) *Existential psychology*

Existential psychology has its philosophical bedrock in the relational concepts of intentionality and inter-subjectivity. It proposes that all mental activity, affect and behaviour are relationally constituted, and ultimately self is the product of relational experience (Worrell, 1997). Mainstream existentialism distinguishes a criterion of objectivity in the testing of the individual's experience against others which indicates the embeddedness of the person in the world (Corrie & Milton, 2000; Edwards, 1990).

The basic goals of the existential approach are as follows (Prasko, Mainerova, Jelenova, Kamaradova, & Sigmundova, 2012):

- freedom and responsibility;
- achieving independence and autonomy;
- assertive knowledgeable intentions;
- making ethical decisions;
- the ability to manage anxiety as a normal unavoidable aspect of human life; and
- sharing affectionate relations, engaging and participating in meaningful interactions.

Thematically, the existential perspective relates to the psychological attribute (self-efficacy), social perceptions (perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction. Existentialism implies that individuals take responsibility for their personal career goals, adapt to future happenings in their environment, manage novel and unforeseen situations that confront them and participate in meaningful interactions to enhance their career development and satisfaction (Creed, Fallon, & Hood., 2009; Prasko et al., 2012; Sharf, 2014).

1.6.1.2 *Empirical research*

The empirical research is presented from the perspective of the post-positivist research paradigm. Post-positivism or (post-empiricism) is a meta-theoretical stance that evaluates and modifies positivism (Robson, 2002). Positivists assert that the researcher and the researched person are independent of each other whereas post-positivists accept that theories, background, knowledge and values of the researcher could influence what is observed (Robson, 2011).

Although post-positivists argue for a reality existence, like positivists they hold that it can only be imperfectly known and probabilistically (Robson, 2002). Furthermore, post-positivists believe that human knowledge is not based on unchallengeable, rock-solid foundations, but rather on human propositions. As human knowledge is thus assumed to be unavoidable, the assertion of these propositions is permitted, or more specifically justified by a set of assumptions which can be modified or withdrawn in the light of further investigation (Levin & Greenwood, 2011).

Robson (2011) identifies the following important assumptions of the post-positivist research paradigm:

- Scientific knowledge separates facts from values, and is value-free.
- Objective knowledge or facts is the only knowledge available to science which can be gained from direct experience or observation such that invisible entities are rejected.
- Science is largely based on quantitative data, drawn from the use of strict rules and procedures, fundamentally different from common sense.
- All scientific propositions are established on facts, and hypotheses and are subjected to rigorous testing.
- The objective of science is to develop universal causal laws, and the search for scientific laws involves finding empirical constancies where two or more things appear together or in some kind of sequence.
- Cause is founded through demonstrating such empirical constancies, which are in fact all that causal relationships are.

The empirical study involved quantitative research performed within the scope of the post-positivist research paradigm. Thematically, the quantitative approach focuses on investigating the relationship dynamics between the constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived

organisational and social support and career satisfaction. The present study provided quantitative numerical measures of these constructs that have a tangible value of behaviour, and statistical techniques were used to analyse the collected numerical data (Riggio, 2009).

1.6.2 The market of intellectual resources

The 'market of intellectual resources' refers to the collection of meta-theoretical beliefs (hypotheses, models or theories) held by those practising within a specific discipline (Mouton & Marais, 1996). For the purpose of this study, a meta-theoretical framework and conceptual descriptions of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction, including the central hypothesis and theoretical and methodological assumptions are presented.

1.6.2.1 Meta-theoretical statements

Meta-theoretical statements signified the critical assumptions of hypotheses, theories and models that formed the context of this study (Mouton & Marais, 1996). This study focused on the IOP disciplinary context. IOP analyses human behaviour in the work context, makes use of principles of psychology to change work behaviour as well as recent research to provide recommendations to solve problems in the workplace (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010; Riggio, 2009). The objective of IOP is to understand human work behaviour, and to apply that knowledge to improve the work behaviour and psychological conditions of workers and the quality of their work life in the workplace (Riggio, 2009; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). Thematically, the present research applied the constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction to provide an understanding of the effects of these constructs for the development of career programmes that may lead to positive employee outcomes (i.e., career development and satisfaction).

1.6.2.2 Conceptual descriptions

Conceptual descriptions that were relevant to this research are discussed in this section.

(a) Psychosocial attributes

Psychosocial attributes are described as a combination of the individual's dispositional attributes and environmental experiences for managing occupational and developmental tasks

(Coetzee, 2016; Savickas, 2013; Theorell, 2007). Thematically, this research applied the psychosocial constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy as well as perceived organisational and social support to provide an understanding of the effects of these constructs on career development and satisfaction.

(b) Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is defined as a combination of abilities to perceive and express emotion correctly, the ability to access and regulate feelings with understanding and to engage in emotional knowledge and problem solving, which help to pay attention to and regulate emotions in order to benefit oneself and others (Mayer et al., 2008). The present study adopted the original ability–trait (mixed) model of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). This construct is measured by the assessing emotions scale (AES) (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009).

(c) Career adaptability

Savickas and Porfeli (2012) define career adaptability as a psychosocial construct with self-regulation strengths or capacities from which a person draws, in order to cope with current and anticipated tasks, transitions, and traumas in his or her occupational roles which, to some degree whether large or small, alter his or her social integration. The present study adopted the career adaptability model by Savickas (2013). This construct is measured by the career adapt–abilities scale (CAAS) (Savickas & Porfeli 2012).

(d) Psychosocial career preoccupations

Psychosocial career preoccupations are seen as an individual's preoccupations with specific career-related concerns associated with the implementation of the career self-concept, which influences his or her life at a certain point (Coetzee, 2014b). The construct represents a mental state at a certain time during which an individual gives attention to specific vocational developmental activities and tasks relating to the implementation of the career self-concept. This state evolves over the course of a lifetime (Coetzee, 2016; Super, 1990). The present study adopted the newly developed psychosocial career preoccupations model (Coetzee, 2014, 2016). The construct is measured by the psychosocial career preoccupations scale (PCPS) (Coetzee, 2014b).

(e) *Self-efficacy*

Self-efficacy relates to an individual's belief about his or her ability to engage in a specific task and his or her ability to complete it (Michaelides, 2008). The present study adopted the self-efficacy theory by Bandura (1997; 2004). This construct is measured by the new general self-efficacy (NGSE) scale (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001).

(f) *Perceived organisational support*

Perceived organisational support was proposed by Eisenberger et al. (1986) as employees' perception about the degree to which the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being. The present study adopted the organisational support theory by Eisenberger et al. (1986). The construct is measured by the survey of perceived organisational support (SPOS) scale (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

(g) *Social support*

Albrecht and Adelman (1987) define social support as verbal and nonverbal communication between the receiver and the provider of information to reduce uncertainty about the situation, the self, the other, or the relationship for the purpose of enhancing a perception of personal control in one's life experience. The present study adopted the social support exchange theory by Shumaker and Brownell (1984). This construct is measured by the multidimensional scale of perceived social support (MSPSS) scale (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988).

(h) *Career success*

Judge et al. (1995) define career success as the positive psychological or work-related accomplishments or achievements an individual will have accumulated as an outcome of his or her work experiences, with these outcomes viewed as having both objective and subjective career successes (Callanan, 2003; Dai & Song, 2016). The focus of the present study was career satisfaction as a measure of subjective career success. The study adopted the social comparison theory by Festinger (1954). This construct is measured by the career satisfaction scale (CSS) (Greenhaus et al., 1990).

1.6.2.3 *Central hypothesis*

The central hypothesis of the research can be formulated as described below:

The overall relationship dynamics between the constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support (as a composite set of independent variables), and career satisfaction (as a dependent variable) constitute a psychosocial profile that may be used to inform the contemporary career development practices of professional women. The present study assumed that social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) would significantly mediate the relationship between the individual's experiences and/or perceptions of her psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.

The study further assumed that individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) would significantly moderate the relationship between their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction. Furthermore, individuals from different groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) would have different levels of psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support), and different experiences of career satisfaction.

1.6.2.4 Theoretical assumptions

Based on the literatures review, the following theoretical assumptions were addressed in the present research:

- There is a need for basic research that seeks to separate psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction.
- Biographical characteristics (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level), including the individual's range of psychosocial attributes may influence the career development and satisfaction.
- The seven constructs – emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction can be influenced by age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level.
- Knowledge of individuals' level of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support including perceptions of career satisfaction may contribute to factors that

may potentially inform contemporary career development and satisfaction of professional women.

1.6.2.5 *Methodological assumptions*

Methodological assumptions are beliefs about the nature of social science and scientific research (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Moreover, methodological assumptions affect the nature and structures of the research domain and these relate to the methodological preference, assumptions and suppositions about what might constitute good research (Mouton & Marais, 1996). As discussed in section 1.5, the epistemological dimensions of social science research (sociological, ontological, teleological, epistemological and methodological dimensions) in a quantitative context are not without limitations. According to Robertshaw (2007), particularly in quantitative research, there are pervasive, various and multifaceted epistemological limitations due to the unavoidable interaction between the researcher and research participants, and the influence of contextual external factors.

Robertshaw (2007) provides some of the epistemological limitations encountered in quantitative research:

- All research measurements are invasive to some degree and could affect responses and behaviours.
- Research participants may knowingly misrepresent responses where they believe a socially desirable response is required.
- The researcher or research mechanism cannot be separated from the research participant, and thus the outcome of the empirical study is always influenced by the actual process of measurement, e.g. subtle influences such as the phrasing used in self-completed surveys and questionnaires.
- Different conclusions and theoretical frameworks could emerge from the same set of repeated observations.
- The participants in the research study may not be representative of the general population, which could lead to persistent bias in repeat studies.
- To some extent, the results obtained may be an artefact of the particular measurement type, scale and phrasing used, rather than being an independent, objective measure.

In this research, exploratory research was presented in the form of a literature review on emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction. Quantitative (exploratory,

descriptive and explanatory) research is presented in the discussion of the empirical study (Chapter 4).

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research is a process through which new knowledge is created based on some logical rationale, and is aligned to theory (Salkind, 2012). A research design is the plan that provides a logical structure which guides the researcher to address research problems and answer research questions (DeForge, 2010). The specific research design used in the present study will be discussed with reference to the types of research conducted, followed by a discussion on validity and reliability.

1.7.1 Exploratory research

Exploratory studies are undertaken when comparatively little is known about a phenomenon or an event, and where the objective is to establish whether a relationship exists among several variables in the analysis (DeForge, 2010). This present research was exploratory in that it evaluated various theoretical perspectives on emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction.

1.7.2 Descriptive research

Descriptive research aims to describe the characteristics of an existing phenomenon (Salkind, 2012). It is one of the first steps in understanding events occurring in the present by describing who is experiencing the problem, how widespread the nature of problem, and its relationship to other factors (DeForge, 2010; Salkind, 2012).

In the literature review, descriptive research applied to the conceptualisation of the constructs emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction. In the empirical study, descriptive research applied to the means, standard deviations and internal consistency reliability coefficients of the constructs of relevance to the research.

1.7.3 Explanatory research

Explanatory research focuses on explaining the relationship between variables and the main purpose is to test theory and to use it to describe, explain, predict and/or control a phenomenon (DeForge, 2010). Due to the cross-sectional nature of the present research, the focus will not be on establishing cause and effect, but rather to establish the nature, direction and magnitude of the relationship between the variables. Therefore, the researcher seeks to explain the relationship between variables (Salkind, 2012). In the empirical study, this form of research was applied to the relationship between emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction scores of a group of subjects.

The end objective of the research is to formulate a conclusion regarding the relationship dynamics between the constructs of relevance to the present research study with the aim of constructing a psychosocial profile to enhance career satisfaction and inform career development practices.

1.7.4 Validity

Validity refers to how investigators generate trustworthy research conclusions and respond to the inevitable threats that might undermine even the strongest research design if left unchecked (Salkind, 2012; Thorkildsen, 2010). The concept of validity applies to all measurement situations, but is particularly fundamental to social research contexts, where most research studies deal with operationalisation of the constructs (Gallestey, 2008; Drost, 2011). Both internal and external validity are significant for the quality and meaningfulness of a research design (Riggio, 2009).

Internal validity refers to the accuracy of statements made about the causal relationship between two variables, namely the manipulated or independent variable and the measured or dependent variable (Leighton, 2010). For research to be internally valid, the approximate certainty about inferences regarding the evidenced relationship among the variables in a particular research study should be true or properly demonstrated (Salkind, 2012). In contrast, external validity refers to the generalised inferences of a study to other situations or to other people (Aronson, Wilson, Akert, & Fehr, 2007).

1.7.4.1 *Validity with regard to the literature review*

In this research study, validity was ensured by making use of literature that relates to the nature, problems and aims of the research. In particular, the constructs, concepts and dimensions that form part of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction as a measure of subjective career success, were found in the relevant literature. Constructs, concepts and dimensions were not chosen subjectively, but were ordered logically and systematically. Every attempt has been made to search for and make use of the most recent literature sources, although a number of the classical and contemporary sources are also referred to, because of their relevance to the conceptualisation of the constructs relevant to this research.

1.7.4.2 *Validity with regard to the empirical research*

The constructs of this research were measured by using questionnaires that were scientifically validated and which assess the underlying construct on which the test is based and correlate these scores with the test scores (Salkind, 2012). The measuring instruments were critically examined for their criterion-related validity (a measure of how well a test estimates a criterion), content validity (evaluating the representativeness of selected items in relation to the entirety of what is to be measured) and construct validity (the extent to which the results of a test are related to an underlying psychological construct) (Salkind, 2012; Thorkildsen, 2010). The researcher ensured that the final conclusions, implications and recommendations were based on the findings of the research. Internal validity is illustrated in Table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1

Internal Validity

Internal validity	
Conceptualisation	Theoretical validity
Operationalisation	Measurement validity
Constructs	Construct validity
Data collection	Reliability
Analysis/interpretation	Inferential validity

Source: Mouton and Marais (1994, p. 51)

In this study, internal validity was maximised by using appropriate, meaningful and valid measuring instruments (Gregory, 2007). Standard instructions in the questionnaire were

provided to all participants. Extraneous variables may compete with the independent variables to explain the outcomes of the study (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). Therefore, statistical procedures were applied to control for biographical variables. Thematically, the present study focused on the influencing role of biographical variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) as control variables.

External validity ensures that the findings of the research study are generalised to the population from which the sample originated (Salkind, 2012). External validity is also related to the sampling procedure applied, the time and place of the research, and the conditions under which the research is conducted (Salkind, 2012). A large enough sample size is chosen to allow for meaningful statistical analysis that produce valid generalisation (Pearl & Bareinboim, 2014). However, a non-probability purposive sample was utilised in the present study, and generalising to the general population was limited to professional women in the South African context.

1.7.5 Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of a measurement instrument or its stability over time (Riggio, 2009), or when a measure yields consistent results on repetition (Drost, 2011; Robinson, 2008). Reliability in the literature was ensured by making use of quality literature sources, specific theory, models, or framework applicable to the proposed research (Levy & Ellis, 2006; Mackey & Gass, 2016). Reliability serves to quantify the precision of measurement instruments over numerous consistent administrations or replications (Gushta & Rupp, 2010). Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to establish the internal consistency reliability of the questionnaires. In addition to Cronbach's alpha, two other measures of internal consistency namely, the Rasch reliability coefficient (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010) which is advantageous because neither sample size nor sample specifics influences the reliability (Boone & Rogan, 2005), and composite reliability which corrects for the underestimation of scale reliability were computed (Raykov, 2012).

1.7.6 The unit of research

The most basic element of a scientific research project is the unit of analysis, which is the subject (the 'who' or 'what') of the study about which an analyst may generalise (Long, 2004). The unit of analysis is the subject of analysis and distinction can be made between the characteristics, perceptions, sentiments or reactions of the individuals, groups or organisations

(Keller, 2010; Vogt, 2005a). In the present study, on individual level, the individual scores on each of the measuring instruments were taken into consideration. On group level, the overall scores on all the measuring instruments were taken into consideration, and on sub-group level, the age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, monthly income and education level scores were taken into consideration in order to determine whether there was a relationship between the constructs of relevance to the study in order to develop a psychosocial profile for the career development of professional women that can be used in practice in organisations.

1.7.7 The variables

The present research attempted to measure the relationship between a composite set of psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) as independent variables and one dependent variable (career satisfaction). The terms 'independent variable' and 'dependent variable' imply a causal relationship where the independent variable is believed to influence the dependent variable to a response or outcome (Tu, 2008). As the present study was cross-sectional in nature, the focus was not to establish cause and effect, but rather to establish the nature, direction and magnitude of the relationship between the variables with the view to construct an overall psychosocial profile.

The mediating effect of perceived organisational and social support (as mediating variables) on the relationship between individuals' psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction was also assessed. The analysis further focused on assessing whether the moderation variables as a set of relatively stable traits (biographical characteristics) modify the strength or direction of the effect of the psychosocial attribute on career satisfaction.

Criterion data was collected by means of criteria forms (the measuring instrument) chosen for the purpose of this research, in order to measure the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, including the mediating and moderation effect of the variables, Figure 1.1 provides an overview of the relationship between the mediating, moderation, independent and dependent variables.

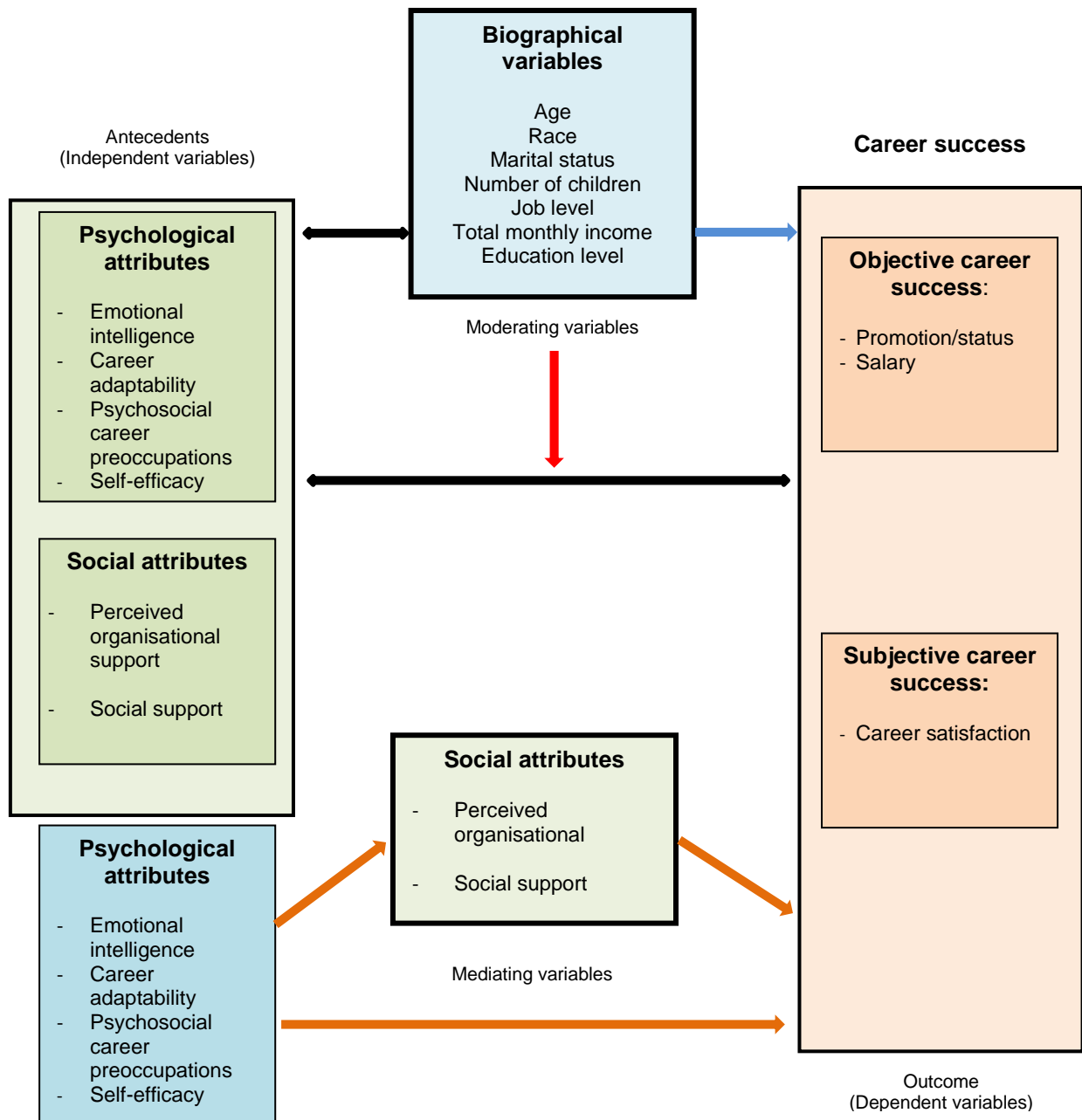
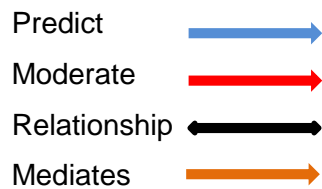


Figure 1.1: The relationship between the variables.

1.7.8 Delimitations

The present study was confined to research dealing with the relationship between the seven core variables, namely emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction. In an attempt to identify oblique factors that could influence individuals' emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction, the variables used as control variables were limited to age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level.

No attempt was made to manipulate or classify any of the information, results or data on the basis of family or spiritual background. Also not included in any classification process were factors relating to disability or illness, physical or psychological illness. The research was intended as a ground-breaking study which limited its focus to the relationship between the constructs of relevance to this study. If such a relationship was indeed identified then the groundwork information would be useful to future researchers to address other issues relating to the seven constructs. The chosen research approach was not intended to establish the cause and effect of the relationships, but merely endeavoured to explore whether such relationships do in fact exist and whether the relationships between the constructs of relevance to this study are influenced by variables such as age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level.

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted in two phases, each comprising different steps, which are discussed in the section below. Figure 1.2 provides an outline of the different phases in the literature review, and Figure 1.3 provides an overview of the research methodology.

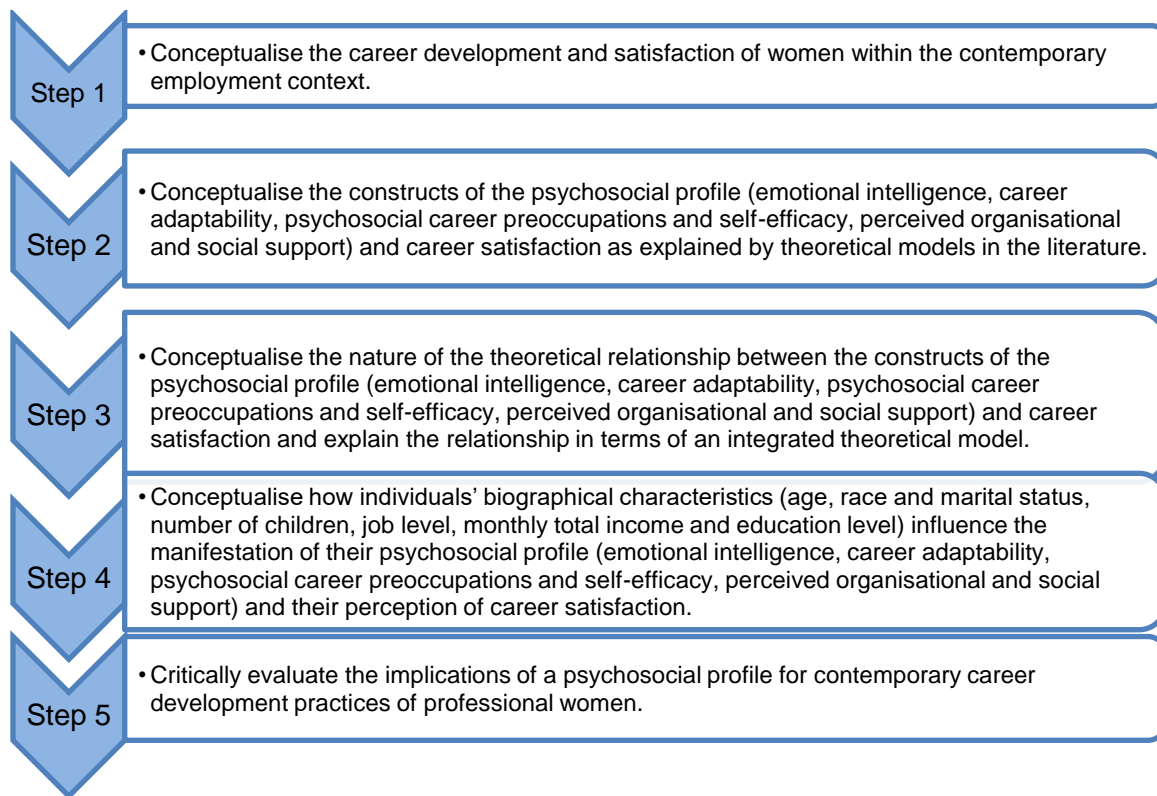


Figure 1.2: Overview of the literature review.

1.8.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The literature review consisted of a review of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, resilience, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction among professional women with a focus on career development and satisfaction.

Step 1: Conceptualising the meta-theoretical context of career development and satisfaction of women within the contemporary work environment.

This phase involved an analysis of contemporary career development in the changing employment context. The individuals' experiences of career transitions and decisions in a challenging and turbulent environmental context are highlighted (Chapter 2).

Step 2: Conceptualisation of the psychosocial profile construct elements as explained by theoretical models in the literature.

This phase conceptualised the various construct elements of the psychosocial profile namely emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy,

perceived organisational and social support as explained by theoretical models in literature (Chapter 3).

Step 3: Conceptualisation of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of the psychosocial profile and career satisfaction and to explain the relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model.

This phase conceptualised the theoretical relationship between the constructs of relevance to this study to explain the relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model (Chapter 4).

Step 4: Conceptualisation of how individuals' biographical characteristics influence the manifestation of their psychosocial profile and their perception of career satisfaction.

This step related to a theoretical explanation of how individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) influence the manifestation of their psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their perception of career satisfaction (Chapter 4).

Step 5: Evaluation of the implications of a psychosocial profile for contemporary career development practices of professional women.

This step related to the critical evaluation of the relationship between the psychosocial profile and career satisfaction and its implications for career development and satisfaction of professional women for the discipline of IOP as well as HR management (Chapter 4).

1.8.2 Phase 2: The empirical study

The research entailed a quantitative survey design comprising the nine steps outlined in Figure 1.3 below. A survey design is cost-effective and a large number of participants can be surveyed (Salkind, 2012).

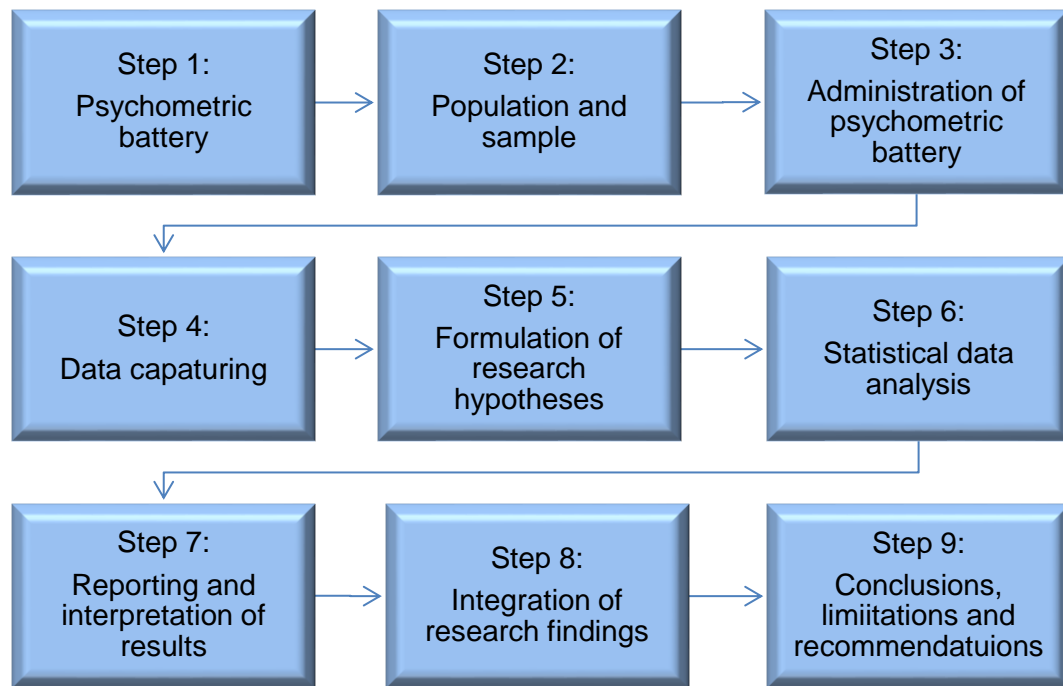


Figure 1.3: Overview of the research methodology

Step 1: Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery

In this step, the psychometric properties of the measuring instruments used to conduct this research are discussed (Chapter 5).

Step 2: Determination and description of the sample

The procedure for determining the sample and the sample characteristics is outlined and discussed in this step (Chapter 5)

Step 3: Administration of the psychometric battery

This step involves a discussion of the process used to collect data from the sample and the measuring instruments are described (Chapter 5).

Step 4: Capturing of criterion data

The participants' responses to each of the items in the eight questionnaires are captured in an electronic database, and consequently converted to an SPSS data file for analysis (Chapter 5).

Step 5: Formulation of research hypotheses

The research hypotheses are formulated in order to achieve the objectives of the research study (Chapter 5).

Step 6: Statistical processing of data

The relevant statistical procedures are explained in detail in this step (Chapter 5).

Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results

The results of the statistical analyses are presented in Chapter 6 in the form of tables, diagrams and/or graphs and a discussion of the findings is presented in a systematic framework, ensuring that the interpretation of the findings is conveyed in a clear and articulate manner.

Step 8: Integration of the research findings

The findings relating to the literature review are integrated with the findings from the empirical research in order to present the overall findings of the research (Chapter 6).

Step 9: Formulation of conclusions, limitations and recommendations

The final step entails the presentation of conclusions of the research study based on the results and their integration with theory. The limitations of the research are discussed, and recommendations are made in terms of the constructs of relevance to the study and the career development of professional women including future research (Chapter 7).

1.9 CHAPTER DIVISION

The chapters in the study are presented as follows:

- Chapter 1: Scientific overview of the research.
- Chapter 2: Meta-theoretical context of the study: dynamics of contemporary career development.
- Chapter 3: Psychosocial attribute constructs.
- Chapter 4: Theoretical integration: towards constructing a psychosocial profile for enhancing the career success of professional women.

- Chapter 5 Research method.
- Chapter 6: Results and discussion.
- Chapter 7: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations.

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The background to and motivation for the research, the aim of the study, the research model, the paradigm perspectives, the theoretical research, the research design and methodology, the central hypothesis and the research method were all discussed in this chapter. The motivation for this study was based on the fact that no known research has been conducted previously on the relationship dynamics between the constructs of relevance to this study; and whether the relationship dynamics between these constructs can be used to construct a psychosocial profile for the career development and satisfaction of professional women in a single study.

The research sets out to critically evaluate relevant literature applicable to the present study and based on sound research methodology, to investigate the relationship dynamics between emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support (as a composite set of psychosocial attributes) and career satisfaction (as dependent variable). The research further aims to investigate whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differ significantly regarding these variables. This may inform IOP and HR professionals on more effective career development and satisfaction strategies for professional women.

Chapter 2 addresses the first research aim of the literature review, namely to conceptualise the dynamics of contemporary career development.

CHAPTER 2: META-THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY: DYNAMICS OF CONTEMPORARY CAREER DEVELOPMENT

The purpose of this chapter is to put the present study into perspective by outlining the meta-theoretical context that formed the definitive boundary of the research. There is overwhelming consensus among researchers that the changing nature of work in a dynamic contemporary environment has led to major transitions in shaping careers and their management within and outside organisations (Baruch, 2006; Born & Drori, 2015; Fleisher, Khapova & Jansen, 2014). Traditionally, careers were typically defined in terms of predictable, secure and linear employing relationships that were nested in stable bounded organisational environments (Baruch, 2006; Chan, Uy, Ho, Sam, Chernyshenko, Yu, 2015; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). In contrast, the new relationship is now pursued in a career trajectory that is increasingly dynamic and competitive in a global contemporary work environment (Born & Drori, 2015; DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014).

The changing nature of the relationship between individuals and organisations create a need for career development practices aimed at enhancing employees work experiences and career satisfaction (DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011). The abovementioned trends require an understanding of the dynamic nature of contemporary careers in contrast to the traditional career, which may potentially inform career development practices.

2.1 CONTEMPORARY CAREER DEVELOPMENT

This section focuses on the changing nature of the concept of a career, the changing nature of careers, the boundaryless and protean careers and perceived barriers for women in career development.

2.1.1 The changing nature of careers in the world of work

The contemporary career model (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014) allows for a better understanding of how women enact careers with reference to both the organisation and the wider socio-cultural environment (Afiouni, 2014). Today's modern careers, characterised by a high degree of uncertainty due to the changing nature of the work, have had far-reaching implications for the experience of work, jobs and careers (Srikanth & Israel, 2012). While the influence of these shifts on careers undoubtedly varies between contexts and occupational groups, changes to the nature of work have been associated widely with a weakening relationship between employer and employee and a shift in responsibility for career

development from the organisation to the individual (Hall, 2004; Jackson & Wilton, 2016). In the past, organisations operated in a rigid hierarchical structure within a stable environment, and career success was evaluated by upward mobility, clear career paths, salary increases and social status (Baruch, 2006; Gerli, Bonesso, & Pizzi, 2015). In contrast, organisations are now dynamic and highly competitive with internal structures that have become flatter and more decentralised than before (Foster, 2016; Greenhaus et al., 2010). Similarly, careers have become transitional, flexible and dynamic, forcing new perspectives of career success in terms of a sideways move in the organisation, physical career mobility, change of aspiration, life satisfaction or work-family balance (Baruch, 2004; Chu, Ye, & Guo, 2015). Thus, more needs to be understood about how contemporary careers affect individuals' career goals and aspirations, career satisfaction and organisational performance (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Heslin, 2003).

Career development is viewed as a continuous stream of career-relevant events and is a total collection of psychological, social, physical, economic, educational and chance factors that combine to shape the career of the individual over a life span (Patton & MacMahon, 2014; Sears, 1982). Career, as traditionally portrayed, is commonly considered a notion that relates to a lifelong sequence of events of the individual's work-related experiences (Hall, 2002; Greenhaus et al., 2010). According to Greenhaus et al. (2010), work-related experiences generally encompass objective occurrences such as job positions or work-related decisions whereas subjective perceptions of work-related events could reflect work aspirations and needs, values or feelings about a particular work experience. In this regard, the career concept insists that the significance of time is noted by all who participate in work activities, since time affords building skills or resources and the capacity to enable people to deal constructively with the often unexpected events that are likely to shape their careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Seibert, Kraimer, & Heslin, 2016).

Globalisation, new technology and organisational restructuring have been connected with a shift to protean and boundaryless career attitudes with workers increasingly required to be self-reliant in successfully navigating their careers (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Jackson & Wilton, 2016). The modern career is now ascribed to possessing vigilance for opportunities that may arise or fade in a more diverse and dynamic or contemporary work environment (Born & Drori, 2015; Fleisher et al., 2014; Sommerlund & Boutaiba, 2007). This career perspective suggests a renewed sense of identity and values, flexibility to shape the direction of a career and the ability to adapt to new career realities (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Seibert et al., 2016). In this regard, the boundaryless and protean career approaches have become characteristic of the contemporary work environment, which represents orientations that may lead to a clear identity as well as

reformulation of strategies to adapt to career transitions or new environments (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011; Seibert et al., 2016). The boundaryless career emphasises the seemingly positive experiences which allow individuals to broaden their mind-set and to recognise possibilities the career presents as well as taking advantage of opportunities that could lead to career satisfaction (Arthur, Inkson, & Pringle, 1999; Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Fleisher et al., 2014). In contrast, a protean career is one that emphasises a self-directed approach (taking control of one's career) driven by one's own values (awareness of one's personal priorities) (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Hall, 2004; Waters, Briscoe, Hall, & Wang, 2014).

2.1.1.1 The boundaryless career

According to Gunz, Mayrhofer and Tolbert (2011), careers are largely influenced by social, political and organisational institutional contexts. However, careers need to be understood in the light of changing aspects that extend beyond the boundaries of these contexts (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). Sullivan and Arthur (2006) describe a boundaryless career as one that involves varying levels of physical and psychological career mobility as exhibited by the career actor. Literature acknowledges the unpredictable and changing nature of the world of work which depends on the interpretation by the career actor (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Kattenbach et al., 2014). Individuals could perceive a boundaryless future as one of independence, driven by inner-directed choices and crossing organisational boundaries in employment mobility (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Chin & Rasdi, 2014). In this regard, the career actor may choose to move across the boundaries of separate employers, draw validation from outside the present employer, get sustenance from external networks, or go so far as to reject existing career opportunities for personal and family reasons (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Gerli et al., 2015).

Moreover, Colakoglu (2011) indicates that experiencing a boundaryless career increases the career actors' opportunities to develop a deeper understanding of their self-identity and accumulate skills and knowledge that are transferable to other employment settings. A study of expatriate managers by Stahl, Miller, and Tung (2002) revealed that the majority of participants viewed their international assignments as an opportunity for personal and professional development and career advancement. A study conducted by Sidle (2013) found that women who voluntarily left their good jobs for new opportunities tended to be very successful in improving their wages.

As new economic, technological and social realms have gone beyond the boundaries of any single organisation, careers are becoming increasingly open, diverse and dynamic, less

structured and controlled by employers (Arthur, 2008; Baruch, 2004; Fleisher et al., 2014). To manage careers, this changing environment requires individual resources considerably different from those that were presumed sufficient in the past (Baruch, 2004; Waters et al., 2014). Arthur, Claman and DeFillippi (1995) identify the intelligent career as having three competencies, which demand the development of capabilities that promote individual initiatives in order to accommodate varying employment arrangements. The three competencies involve the individual's motivation, beliefs and identities, which the person brings to a task or work environment (knowing why); skills and knowledge needed to perform a task or job (knowing how), and networks or relationships with colleagues and friends that provide needed access to new opportunities and sources of information (knowing whom) (Arthur et al., 1995; Gerli et al., 2015; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

Eby, Butts, and Lockwood (2003) established that knowing why, knowing how and knowing whom are all important in predicting perceived career success, internal marketability and external marketability. Eby et al. (2003) further reported that individuals high in knowing why (as demonstrated by proactive, flexible behaviour, openness to experience and career insight) are likely to thrive in a dynamic work environment as well as to report career satisfaction. High levels of knowing how were linked to the idea that people building extensive skill sets and who have a propensity to seek out new learning experiences report career satisfaction because these individuals feel well rounded and have a strong professional identity. Hence, the 'knowing whom' competency (mentoring) was related to perceptions of external marketability (Eby et al., 2003). Colakoglu (2011) confirmed that as the major responsibilities of career development shifts from organisations to individuals, career actors tend to have a proactive and self-reliant approach to engage in career development activities, which in turn, reduces feelings of career insecurity.

Baruch (2004) ascribes the role of the contemporary dynamic nature of labour markets to major changes about managing careers with meaningful implications for individuals and organisations. Although it is likely that there will be considerable differences in terms of the extent to which individual careers exhibit boundaryless characteristics, the dynamic labour market remains a platform where numerous organisations and individual careers presently intersect in order to capture the view of a boundaryless world (DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Gerli et al., 2015). In this regard, the view of a boundaryless career is becoming central for the understanding of contemporary career paths (Gerli et al., 2015). These trends, portrayed as a transition from the traditional to boundaryless career system are summarised in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

The Transition from Traditional to Boundaryless Careers

Aspect	Traditional	Contemporary boundaryless
Environment characteristics	Stability	Dynamism
Career choice being made	One is at an early career stage	Repeated and sometimes cyclical at different career life stages
Main career responsibility lies with:	Organisation	The individual
• Career horizon (workplace)	Single organisation	Multiple organisations
• Career horizon (time)	Long-term	Short-term
• Scope of change	Incremental	Transformational
Expectation of employment relationship	Loyalty and commitment	Long working hours
Expectation of employment arrangement	Secure employment	Investing in employability
Progress criteria	Advance according to tenure	Advancement in careers based on knowledge generation
Success means	Progression on the hierarchy ladder	Inner sense of achievement
Training	Formal programmes, generalist	Organisation-specific on-the-job
Essence of career direction	Linear	Multidirectional

Source: Adapted from Baruch (2004)

While the notion of a boundaryless career became an emerging phenomenon of research about careers in the last decade, this boundaryless model has been used by women for decades out of necessity (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). The boundaryless career is evident among women as they have had to pursue discontinuous, interrupted and even sideway careers due to the need of caring for children, coping with aging parents or ailing spouses, personal demands, and trailing spouse issues (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). This view is supported by Cabrera (2007) who affirms that women participating in her research pursued boundaryless careers, as evidenced by the fact that almost half of the women surveyed had stopped working at some point, and the majority had returned to the workforce. According to Cabrera (2007), the complex interplay of push and pull factors affecting women's career decisions will continue to drive many of them out of the workforce at some point in their careers. In this regard, identifying barriers experienced by women in the workplace is a step towards minimising the challenges they face in pursuing boundaryless careers (Cabrera, 2007; Webb, 2016).

2.1.1.2 *The protean career*

The term 'protean' is derived from the Greek sea god Proteus, who could modify or transform in many shapes at will to evade any potential threat (Hall, 2002). Similarly, protean individuals value autonomy, self-direction and personal growth; and define career success in terms of psychological factors, such as a sense of fulfilment or personal accomplishment (Hall & Chandler, 2005; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011; Waters et al., 2014). Hall and his associates (1996) focused mainly on the subjective perspective of the individual who is faced with the external career realities of the contemporary work environment. Hence, Hall (2004) defines a protean career attitude as driven by the needs of the individual rather than the organisation. The core values of a protean career attitude are centred on freedom and growth, which provide the measurement of success for individuals (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Chin & Rasdi, 2014). Although there is less security provided by the organisation, there is more freedom and opportunity to create security from one's skills through learning (Hall & Mirvis, 1996; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011).

The protean career differs from the traditional career by its cyclical nature (Valcour & Ladge, 2008). Instead of portraying a one-way journey through pre-ordained sequences of career stages or positions, the protean career involves multiple, possibly independent cycles of career exploration, learning and mastery (Hall, 2002; Valcour & Ladge, 2008). In addition, the orientation of a protean career represents an internally driven perspective where the individuals rather than their employing organisations become the architects of their own careers, development and vocational destiny (Enache, Sallan, Simo, & Fernandez, 2011). Similarly, Baruch (2006) describes the protean career as a new career arrangement for a contract with oneself rather than the organisation where the individual takes on the responsibility to manage his or her own career and transforming a career path. Briscoe, Hall, & DeMuth (2006) identify two relevant protean career attitudes: to be self-directed and to be value-driven. A self-directed attitude allows individuals to take a proactive role or to be in control of strategically managing their own careers (Briscoe et al., 2006; Khan, Salleh, & Hemdi, 2016). In contrast, a value-driven attitude, refers to the high consciousness of the individual towards his or her own personal priorities and is used as guidance in making and assessing career decisions (Briscoe et al., 2006; Khan et al., 2016).

An increase in family and relational demands makes it difficult for women to adhere to the high commitment norms of traditional career paths necessitating an adoption of protean careers in order to shape career success (Böhmer & Schinnenburg, 2016; Valcour & Ladge, 2008). According to Cabrera (2009), life circumstances, often childbearing, distract women from their

original career path, prompting them to redefine their career aspirations as well as to adopt short-term strategies, to best accommodate their changing circumstances. Valcour and Ladge (2008) suggest that, a self-directed logic of a protean career often results in multiple career cycles, which allow for accommodation of family responsibilities. In addition, a protean career creates opportunities for reinvention and renewal, which affords women to experience psychological success, such as personal growth or accomplishment and family harmony (Valcour & Ladge, 2008). Therefore, women often opt to adopt protean careers and become career self-agents to satisfy their need for balance and life coherence (Böhmer & Schinnenburg, 2016; Cabrera, 2009).

According to Briscoe et al. (2006), persons who hold protean career attitudes prefer to use their values to guide their career, use internally developed standards, are more likely to seek internal direction, and take on an independent proactive role in managing their vocational behaviour. This sense of reliance on one's own values, highlighting the importance of one's needs, dreams and aspirations, leans towards the attainment of meaningful individual outcomes (Enache et al., 2011). A study by De Vos and Soens (2008) supports the idea that a protean career attitude is a significant precursor of career success. De Vos and Soens (2008) also found that a protean career attitude predicted subjective and objective career success.

Research findings by Enache et al. (2011) indicated that women's career success is positively related to their self-direction as opposed to reliance on their values. McDonald, Brown, and Bradley (2004) found that the tendency towards protean careers is evident and more pronounced for women than for men. A protean career is more suitable for the study of women's careers, because it adopts a self-directed approach to managing careers and favours careers that provide a balance between work and family demands (Böhmer & Schinnenburg, 2016; Cabrera, 2009). According to Cabrera (2009) inflexible work schedules, long hours and travel demands make it difficult for women to balance work and family responsibilities. In view of that, a protean career orientation becomes more attractive in order to create careers that allow parameters of balance in navigating between the multiple family roles and experiences of career success (Karam, Afiouni, & Nasr, 2013).

In conclusion, it should be noted that although the two concepts are distinct, a protean career actor will flourish in a boundaryless career environment as compared to being suppressed in a traditional career system (Baruch, 2006). Individuals may display protean attitudes and make independent, inner-directed choices, yet not prefer to cross boundary collaboration, whereas others would embrace a boundaryless mind-set and yet still rely on one organisation to develop and nurture their career (Briscoe et al., 2006). Segers, Inceoglu, Vloeberghs, Bartram, and

Henderickx (2008) found that, in a boundaryless career perspective, women experience freedom to engage in psychological mobility since they are less obligated to conform to traditional work roles than their male counterparts. Therefore, protean value-driven attitudes may increase perceptions of subjective career success, such as personal accomplishment or work life balance, instead of objective career success, such as income (Böhmer & Schinnenburg, 2016; Valcour & Ladge, 2008).

2.1.2 Perceived barriers for women in career development

A review of literature indicates that barriers to the career development of women include personal, interpersonal, organisational and societal factors (Linge, 2015; Napasri & Yukongdi, 2015; Rowe & Crafford, 2003; Shrestha, 2016). A number of socially constructed internal and external barriers relating to early gender role stereotypes, family responsibilities, and employment inequities were perceived to be key obstacles to the career choices, advancement and career development for women (Coogan & Chen, 2007; Linge, 2015; Napasri & Yukongdi, 2015; Shrestha, 2016). These barriers pose threats to women's personal identity and vocational lives and hinder their career development processes (Coogan & Chen, 2007; Deemer, Thoman, Chase, & Smith, 2014). In this regard, the present study proposes that developing the psychosocial attributes of women may help them to enhance their career satisfaction and may facilitate career development for career success.

2.1.2.1 *Gender role stereotypes*

Research evidence suggests that gender-based impediments have a negative impact on women who aspire to experience the full realisation of career development in the workplace (Kelly & Breslin, 2010; Napasri & Yukongdi, 2015). According to Thompson (2015), shocking statistics from the Engineering Council of South Africa (ECSA) in 2014 showed that 70% of the women who graduated with engineering degrees left the sector after beginning their careers because they felt isolated in their jobs. Likewise, Mayrhofer, Meyer, Shiffinger and Schmidt (2008) suggests that the presence of children, employment status of one's partner and household responsibilities influence the perception of work importance and experienced work-related outcomes for women. Research studies indicate that social values lower the career aspirations of women's career advancement, given the cultural beliefs which expect women to put their families first (Chou, Fosh, & Foster, 2005; Napasri & Yukongdi, 2015). In that view, these gender stereotypes concerning both life and occupational roles may cause women to not place the same emphasis on pursuing successful careers as compared to their male counterparts (Coogan & Chen, 2007; Moore, 2011).

Women also tend to respond to gender stereotypical barriers by avoiding careers that are male-dominated, have high rates of discrimination or require skills traditionally considered male strengths such as established male-club professional networks (Napasri & Yukongdi, 2015; Schwanke, 2013). Sharf (2010) found that girls were more likely to imagine themselves in stereotypically female occupations such as nurse and teacher while discounting stereotypically male occupations such as physicist, engineer or fire-fighter. A study by Deemer et al. (2014) indicates that stereotyping has a negative indirect effect on women's career choice intentions (Deemer et al., 2014). Although women have a clear ability to perform with the same skill and success in every endeavour engaged by men in the workplace, stereotypical attitudes remain a hindrance towards women's career advancement and success (Napasri & Yukongdi, 2015; Shrestha, 2016). According to Coogan and Chen (2007), women often choose to pursue female-type occupations that tend to be family-friendly and flexible. Moreover, women tend to avoid stereotypically male occupations, which demand increased responsibility and pressurised obligations due to family responsibilities (Eriksen & Klein, 1981; Moore, 2011). Hence, the potential breaks of employment for childbearing constrain women to choose occupations with lower interruption costs and career development opportunities (Hoffman & Reed, 1981; Moore, 2011).

2.1.2.2 Family responsibilities

The incompatibility of role pressures as a result of a shortage of time to participate in the work and home domains results in situations where participation in one role makes it difficult to function successfully in another role (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). Moreover, careers are frequently experienced differently by women and men, partly because women are more likely than men to view work and home as entangled strands (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Lee, Kossek, Hall, Litrico, 2011). As a result, women's value for relationships may force choices that require evaluation of the needs of children, spouses, aging parents, friends and even co-workers as part of the whole in making career decisions (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). Ultimately, a woman may adjust her career ambitions to obtain a more flexible schedule or put aside personal needs for authentic work or meaningful experience in favour of significant others (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008).

According to Coogan and Chen (2007), family responsibilities (home and childcare) can be a major factor in women experiencing employment interruptions and decreased career advancement opportunities. For instance, Schwanke (2013) argues that organisational policies on maternity leave are favoured over paternity leave, and women are encouraged to work part-time following the birth of a child, whereas men are not permitted equal opportunity to do so.

According to Schwanke (2013), these policies reinforce the social perception that it is more appropriate for women to fulfil the commitment to family responsibilities than for men to do so. The downside is that these maternity leave policies are seen to influence employers' attitudes towards recruiting women to participate in the labour force adversely (Mehdizadeh, 2011).

Similarly, Sullivan and Arthur (2006) suggest that women at large may have less freedom than men to engage in physical mobility. Supposedly, a woman may reject an opportunity that requires relocation or increased travel because her husband may be unable or unwilling to move, she may be caring for an ill dependent, or there is a lack of quality childcare in the new location (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). These social expectations deem it more appropriate for women to interrupt their careers due to family responsibilities than for men to do the same (Schwanke, 2013). For example, Mayrhofer et al. (2008) affirm that whereas fathers' careers benefit from their family role, mothers' career advancement suffers as a result of additional family responsibilities. As a result, family and relational demands disadvantage women's careers because they hold primary responsibilities, such as childcare, which places a higher demand on them than would generally be expected of men (Böhmer & Schinnenburg, 2016; Kirchmeyer, 2006).

2.1.2.3 Employment inequities

Globally, as administrations undertake the difficult task of enacting social and political change, the unequal status of women presents a particularly challenging obstacle in the workplace (Kelly & Breslin, 2010). Research into the stereotyping of gender roles globally illustrates the common belief that women are inferior to men, and also that women lack the ability to deal with the challenges in senior leadership and male-dominated work environments (Doubell & Struwig, 2014; Karam & Jamali, 2013; Martin & Barnard, 2013; Orser et al., 2012). According to Karam and Jamali (2013), conformity of women to social roles as dictated by the traditional gender contract serves to reinforce women's sense of worth and legitimacy. However, the legitimacy derived from sticking to childrearing and domestic roles is increasingly questioned by clear evidence that women, when given the opportunity, have the potential to be successful and that they ultimately contribute positively to the workplace and the economy as a whole (Karam & Jamali, 2013). For instance, top management inclusion of women in leadership positions may contribute to the value-add of a more diverse decision-making body with a depth of creative ideas (Grala, 2013). Therefore, since women often have numerous life roles to play, more innovation is needed to accommodate women in managerial positions (Grala, 2013).

The challenges women experience in attempting to infiltrate successfully into historically male-dominated occupations arise from traditional gender hierarchies and unequal employment opportunities that prevail in society (Doubell & Struwig, 2014; Martin & Barnard, 2013). Although the South African EEAA, No. 47 of 2013 represents a milestone to create an equitable, fair and balanced employment environment to ensure that women are equally represented across all occupational levels in the workforce (EEAA, No. 47 of 2013). Yet, the representation of South African women in top management has declined from 3.9 % in 2008 to 3.6 % in 2012 (Business Women's Association [BWA], 2012; Doubell & Struwig, 2014).

Research by Grala (2013) found that, although statistics by the South African Institute for Chartered Accountants (SAICA) revealed that the total number of female chartered accountants increased by 50 %, over the period (2009-2013) the percentage of women in senior management positions was still inadequate. According to Brown (2016), the latest survey shows that the number of female accountants in South Africa has increased from 16.3 % to 34.5 % over the period (i.e. 2002–2016). Grala (2013) further indicates that by 2013, only 28 % of South African senior management positions were occupied by women and this status has remained flat lining for at least five years (i.e. 2009–2013). The latest report by Business Reporter (2017) confirms that senior management roles in South Africa held by women has remained flat lined at 28 %. Likewise, the Public Works Committee (2013) lamented that transformation was taking place too slowly and failing the women of South Africa as the male versus female ratio in the built and engineering profession was 86.3 % to 13.7 %.

Transformation in a profession can be likened to metamorphosis, which is not an overnight affair, but each stage is unique in its development (Grala, 2013). In South Africa, more recently, the first black female judge president as well as a female Public Protector was appointed as part of the special programme to fast-track transformation in previously male-denominated leadership positions (Ngoma, 2010). Regrettably, as of 2014, transformation in the judiciary was still occurring at a slow pace as statistics reflected that out of 243 judges in South Africa, 79 are women, which is less than half of the judiciary system (Manyathi-Jele, 2013; Naidu-Hoffmeester, 2014). However, as of 2016, 86 of the 242 judges occupying permanent positions were women and this amounts to only 38 % of the seats in the South African judiciary (Toxopeus, 2017).

Furthermore, career progression for women academics to higher levels is also not in proportion to their representation within the profession (Barrett & Barrett, 2011). Barrett and Barrett (2011) attribute the lack of women's progression to discriminatory practices that often unsuspectingly go unnoticed as a result of the skewed allocation of work activities that are not strongly

associated with promotion. For example, due to family responsibilities women may find it difficult to fulfil the expectations of research activities that are conducted after hours in the office (Barrett & Barrett, 2011).

In conclusion, despite the advocacy for equal employment opportunities and increased representation of women in the workforce there remains a significant unequal representation of women in leadership and male-dominated work environments. The reality of life's multiple roles, inflexibility and extreme demands of many jobs today, leave women searching for alternatives (Cabrera, 2009). It is evident that women shift the patterns of their careers by rotating various aspects of their lives to manage multiple roles and relationships (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Each action taken by a woman in her career is regarded as having profound and long-lasting effects on those around her (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). Further, women assess existing choices, options and potential cost to determine the best fit among their many relationships, work constraints and opportunities to arrive at solutions that achieve control, develop their potential and provide satisfying social relationships (Cortini, Tanucci, & Morin, 2010; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Therefore, when women experience challenges in attempting to conform to the traditional career model that is based on the traditional view of the ideal worker, they adopt a contemporary view that encourages a self-directed and boundaryless mind-set to satisfy their need for authenticity, and balance between work and non-work roles (Briscoe et al., 2006; Cabrera, 2009; Jackson & Wilton, 2016).

2.2 CAREER SUCCESS IN CONTEMPORARY CAREER DEVELOPMENT

The changing nature of careers in this modern era along with evolving social structures suggests new ways of looking at career success among professional women (Chinyamurindi, 2016; Greenhaus et al., 2010). According to Arthur, Khapova and Wilderom (2005), careers are described in two ways. On the one hand, subjective careers are more salient than objective careers and create perceptions of a sense of calling, which enacts one's personal purpose, meaning of life, career satisfaction and personal fulfilment (Chinyamurindi, 2016; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Hirschi, 2011). On the other hand, there are objective careers, such as salary and job level which reflect the more external often discreet indicators of advancement or status, positions and situations that occur in an individual's career history and social setting (Arthur et al., 2005; Stumpf, 2014). As noted by Judge and Hurst (2008), objective and subjective characteristics of careers are discrete but interdependent. While it is quite possible that objective success influences how an individual subjectively experiences his or her career success, it is also possible that subjective experiences of success have a direct influence on how this individual's objective success will develop (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Gu & Su, 2016).

Career success is defined as the positive perceptions of accomplishments or achievements individuals will have accumulated as a result of their work experiences (Judge et al., 1995; Koekemoer, 2014). These work experiences or outcomes are viewed as having both objective and subjective successes (Callanan, 2003; Dai & Song, 2016). It seems, from a traditional perspective; that career success has been understood predominantly in objective terms, namely factors such as salary, salary growth, promotions and other tangible trappings of achievements (Greenhaus et al., 2010; Gu & Su, 2016). While these provable career success factors are significant, current literature suggests that the pursuit of a boundaryless career supports the attainment of subjective career success commonly defined as an individual's perception of accomplishments in and satisfaction with his or her career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Colakoglu, 2011; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). Therefore, one of the key elements that differentiate subjective career success from objective career success is perceptions of career satisfaction as a measure of subjective career success rather than the actual visible external career achievements (Dai & Song, 2016; Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012). The present study focused on career satisfaction (meeting goals for income, advancement, and development of new skills) as a measure of subjective career success (Greenhaus et al., 1990).

There is evidence for an interdependent perspective on objective and subjective success (Stumpf & Tymon, 2012). On the one hand, there are both objective and subjective sides to a career, but on the other hand, these two sides are seen to be persistently interdependent (Arthur et al., 2005). For instance, an objective career provides the work experiences that supposedly influence individuals' subjective interpretations of their career situation (Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012). Equally, subjective career satisfaction may make a person self-confident and boost his or her motivation to effect strong objective attainments (Abele & Spurk, 2009). Therefore, the two measures of career success are intertwined or complement each other, since they tend to address the limitations that are not captured by each relevant measure of the construct, such as promotion versus work-life balance (Gu & Su, 2016; Heslin, 2003).

2.2.1 Objective career success

Objective career success may be explained according to an observable perspective that defines more or less external indicators of an individual's career advancement or the accumulation of extrinsic rewards (Arthur et al., 2005; Gu & Su, 2016). These indicators are generally measured in terms of rewards, salary growth, promotions and/or job levels as decided by the organisation and over which the individuals have limited control (Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012). Objective career success is publicly accessible and reflects shared social understanding instead of the unique understanding from the individual's perspective (Arthur et al., 2005). However, objective success is likely to be contaminated in that it can be affected by factors beyond the individual's control, and which are defined by society (Gu & Su, 2016; Heslin, 2005). For instance, Heslin (2005) argues that countries differ in a number of factors (e.g. power structures, economic and social stratification, occupational pay norms, labour market conditions, and competition), which may change independently of the individual's actions in any occupational category. These changes may have a negative effect on objective the individual's career success, such less career opportunities or progression, lack of promotion opportunities and salary increases (Strumpf & Tymon, 2012).

As noted by Ng et al. (2005), objective or extrinsic career success can be described as indicators that can be seen and consequently evaluated objectively by others. Accordingly, the most obvious and widely used measure of extrinsic or objective success is pay or salary (Judge & Hurst, 2008). Kirchmeyer (2006) suggests that gender gaps in achieved rank and salary as common indicators of objective success were often attributed to the different family roles and responsibilities of men and women. Mayrhofer et al. (2008) suggests that opportunities for promotion and financial rewards is not solely based on actual achievements or performance, but on gender biases and stereotypes about women's abilities and future involvement (Bailey & DiPrete, 2016).

Interestingly, Ng et al. (2005) found that relationships between education and salary were stronger for women compared to men. According to Ng et al. (2005), this illustrates that for women to succeed in the career contest they may have to work harder and seek out for greater educational experiences than men to compensate for stifled internal opportunities to move to better paid positions. Alternatively, Mayrhofer et al. (2008) suggest that, as female professionals are discriminated against in terms of objective success, they will increasingly rely strongly on internal justification of their investments into subjective career satisfaction. Therefore, while objective career outcomes, such status and pay, are commonly valued, numerous scholars have highlighted the incremental value of also considering subjective

career success as experienced by the individual (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Heslin, 2003; Mayrhofer et al., 2008; Spurk, Kauffeld, Barthauer, & Heinemann, 2015; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011; Valcour & Ladge, 2008).

2.2.2 Subjective career success

Career scholars have addressed subjective career success as experienced directly by the individual who is engaged in his or her career, where success is measured according to his or her own standard (Dyke & Murphy, 2006; Hall, 1996; Heslin, 2003; Spurk et al. 2015). Unlike the objective success measures, subjective success measures may be perceived as important career outcomes that are not readily available on personnel records (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986; Gu & Su, 2016; Srikanth & Israel, 2012). Subjective career success as judged by the self instead of the organisation is frequently defined as psychological success emanating from a sense of pride and personal accomplishment regarding various goals in one's career (Ballout, 2009; Gattiker & Larwood, 1990; Hall, 1996; Stumpf, 2014). Du Toit and Coetzee (2012) describe subjective career success as the individuals' perception or self-evaluation of his or her own success (e.g. personal satisfaction, a sense of accomplishment or self-worth and personal growth) in the current organisation as well as in the career in general. A study by Coetzee and Bergh (2009) found psychological career resources to be significant predictors of subjective work experiences (e.g. career satisfaction and happiness).

According to Valcour and Ladge (2008), an individual's own assessment of success relative to his or her identity and career goals is the key criterion for subjective career success. Subjective career success mainly refers to an individual's own disposition for development in a chosen occupation or profession, and is evaluated according to one's career progress, aspirations, and goal accomplishments (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986; Srikanth & Israel, 2012). Literature review has commonly operationalised subjective career success in terms of job satisfaction (Heslin, 2003; Kirkbesoglu & Ozder, 2015; Locke, 1976) or career satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Heslin, 2003; Spurk, Abele, & Volmer, 2014). Job satisfaction is defined as the positive or desired psychological responses, as a result of the evaluation of one's job situation and work experiences, such as a favourable income, promotion opportunities or maternity leave for female employees (Kirkbesoglu & Ozder, 2015; Locke, 1976; Thompson & Phua, 2012).

According to Heslin (2003), using job satisfaction as an indicator of career success has limitations in that an individual could be highly satisfied with his or her current job, but dissatisfied with the career attainments that follow. Heslin (2003) also suggests that an

individual may hate what he or she is doing but be happy with the state of the career because of the prospects it brings. When compared to job satisfaction which is limited to the current job only, subjective career success encompasses reactions to actual and anticipated career-related attainments across a broader time frame, with a wider range of outcomes, such as work–life balance, a sense of purpose, career goal accomplishments and personal growth (Du Toit & Coetzee; 2012; Heslin, 2003; Spurk et al., 2015). Although increased job satisfaction may contribute to the impression that one has a successful career, it is apparent that subjective career success cannot be reduced to job satisfaction (Heslin, 2003; Kirkbesoglu & Ozder, 2015).

2.2.2.1 Career satisfaction

Career satisfaction is an important construct which represent an overall view of how a person feels about a lifespan of a career and all the diverse activities and experiences that encompass a career (Lounsbury, Loveland, Sundstrom, Gibson, Drost, & Hamrick, 2003). Career satisfaction, defined as individuals' personal evaluation of their own careers, is often viewed as one central indicator of subjective career success (Abele, Spurk, & Volmer, 2011; Ng et al., 2005; Spurk et al., 2014). Career satisfaction is a subjective measure that stems from individuals' perceptions of their satisfaction with their overall career goals, for instance, income, advancement or development of new skills (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Karavardar, 2014; Yap, Cukier, Holmes, & Hannan, 2010). Personal goal accomplishment is a major source of subjective well-being and satisfaction, and is enhanced by accessibility of resources (e.g. personality attributes, abilities and material resources in the form of status or income, and social factors, such as organisational and social support) (Sirgy, 2012). According to Karavardar (2014), career satisfaction is a measure of the extent to which individuals believe their career progress is consistent with their own goals, values and preference. Jen–Ruei (2010) describes career satisfaction as the level of overall happiness experienced from one's career choices. Therefore, career satisfaction reflects how individuals feel about their career-related roles, accomplishments and success (Karavardar, 2014).

Research findings by Snyder (2011) showed that women participating in the research were satisfied with four of the career satisfaction areas: career success, meeting overall career goals, professional development goals, and the development of new professional skills, but not with progress toward meeting goals for income. According to Mafini and Dlodlo (2014), satisfied employees are committed to their work, they participate positively and effectively in work activities, and they are unlikely to leave their organisation. Research findings by Peterson, Friedman, Ash, Franco and Carr (2004) suggest that medical doctors who reported

experiencing racial bias by a superior or colleague had low career satisfaction has an effect on the career trajectory of employee. Hence, an increase in career satisfaction amongst employees has a positive effect on the performance of both the organisation and employees (Mafin & Dlodlo, 2014).

Career satisfaction may be attributed to the development of competencies associated with one's job and provide opportunities for career advancement (Srikanth & Israel, 2012). Leigh, Tancredi and Kravitz (2009) observed that more mature physicians experienced high levels of career satisfaction. Burke (2005) found that individuals at lower organisational levels were less satisfied with their careers than those at higher levels. Yap et al. (2010) found that black, South Asian and Chinese employees working in information and communications technology and financial services sectors were less satisfied with their careers than white employees, with black employees being the least satisfied. Karatepe (2012) is of the view that perceived organisational support is a strong predictor of career satisfaction since it facilitates the achievement of an individual's career goals. Findings by Kirkbesoglu and Ozder (2015) support the fact that perceived organisational support affects career satisfaction in terms of pay, advancement, achievement of career goals, and development of new skills in the current jobs. Similarly, Bakan and Buyukbese (2013) indicate that participating employees with high income levels reported significantly higher levels of career satisfaction than did employees with low income levels.

2.2.2.2 *Social comparison theory*

Ng et al. (2005) suggest that individuals evaluate their career success according to different mechanisms, namely their satisfaction with their careers and how their career has progressed relative to others. Heslin (2003) used social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) as the basis for people's tendency to evaluate their career outcomes. Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory states that people are motivated to evaluate the outcomes they achieve, and they try to do so by comparing their actions and outcomes to those of other people (Heslin, 2003). It is maintained that people are most likely to engage in comparisons with similar others and thus employ lateral comparisons to get an accurate evaluation of their opinions and abilities (Festinger, 1954; Stet & Burke, 2014). However, people desire to improve themselves, which causes them to compare themselves upward with others who are thought to be better off than they are (Festinger, 1954; Stets & Burke, 2014).

Comparisons between the self and others are important psychological mechanisms influencing individuals' judgments, experiences and behaviour (Corcoran, Crusius, & Mussweiler (2011).

Social comparison is fundamental to helping individuals form and maintain the meanings held in their persons, their roles and the social identity standards (Stets & Burke, 2014). Whenever individuals want to know how they are or what they can and cannot do, they do so by comparing their characteristics, strengths and weaknesses to those of others (Corcoran et al., 2011). Research on social comparison theory emphasises the importance of others in the formation of one's opinions, by comparing one's abilities with those of others and the ways they use others to fulfil their own need to gain knowledge about themselves (Corcoran et al., 2011; Stets & Burke, 2014). Festinger (1954) based the social comparison theory on nine hypotheses as indicated in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

The Hypotheses of the Theory of Social Comparison

Number	hypotheses
I	There exists, in the human organism, a drive to evaluate his/her opinions and abilities.
II	To the extent that objective, non-social means are not available, individuals evaluate their opinions and abilities respectively by comparison with the opinions and abilities of others.
III	The tendency to compare oneself with some other specific person decreases as the difference between his/her opinions or abilities increases.
IV	There is a unidirectional drive upward in the case of abilities which are largely absent in opinions.
V	There are non-social restraints which make it difficult or even impossible to change one's ability. These non-social restraints are mostly absent for opinions.
VI	The cessation to compare the self with others is accompanied by resentment to the extent that continued comparison with those persons implies unpleasant consequences.
VII	Any factors which increase the importance of some particular group as a comparison group for some particular opinion or ability will increase the pressure toward uniformity concerning that ability or opinion within that group.
VIII	If persons whose opinions or abilities are very divergent from one's are perceived as different from oneself in terms of attributes consistent with the deviation, the tendency to narrow the range of comparability becomes stronger.
IX	When there is a range of opinions or abilities in a group, the relative strength of the manifestations of pressures towards uniformity will be different for those who are close to the mode of the group compared to those who are distant from the mode. Therefore, those close to the mode of the group will have stronger tendencies to change the positions of others. This relatively weakens tendencies to narrow the range of comparison, and also weakens tendencies to change a position compared to those who are distant from the mode of the group.

Source: Festinger (1954, pp. 117–140)

- Hypotheses I and II: *Why individuals engage in social comparison*. The need know and determine opinions or abilities by reference to the physical world in many situations motivates people to compare themselves to other individuals (Corcoran et al., 2011; Festinger, 1954).

- Hypotheses III, IV and VIII: *Understanding with whom people compare*. Festinger (1954) suggests that individuals seek out similar others for comparisons or, in the case of abilities, others who are slightly better than themselves. However, comparisons with individuals whose opinions or abilities are too divergent do not provide much useful information for assessing the accuracy of one's own opinions or abilities – mostly because the result of such a comparison is already known (Corcoran et al., 2011).
- Hypotheses V, VI, VII and IX: *Some consequences of social comparison to the self*. Comparison might cause a change in one's opinion or ability, and most likely, this change goes towards uniformity or assimilation. The amount of change highly depends on the importance and relevance of an attraction to the comparison group; hence, the inability to reach uniformity can be perceived as unpleasant (Corcoran et al., 2011; Festinger, 1954).

According to Corcoran et al. (2011), individuals engage in social comparisons for the following reasons:

- They compare themselves to others based on motivational considerations and a basic need to maintain a stable and accurate self-view. Hence, they seek out feedback about their characteristics and abilities. Although individuals mainly rely on objective standards for feedback, the objective standards may not always be available, or comparisons are hard to achieve, in this case. In this case they may fall back on social comparison with others.
- Social comparison fulfils the need to self-improve, therefore in order to gain information on how to advance, individuals seek comparison particularly with upwards standards, which is better than themselves.
- Individuals compare themselves with similar others to evaluate their abilities so that they can gain correct self-knowledge for self-improvement.
- Self-perception, affective reaction, motivation and behavior are all shaped by comparison with others. For example, individuals evaluate themselves to be worse off after a comparison with a high, superior standard than a low, inferior standard.

Social comparison is a pervasive process, which influences how individuals think about themselves, how they feel, what they are motivated to do and how they behave (Corcoran et al., 2011). Heslin (2003) suggests that people evaluate their career success relative to self-referent standards that they set for themselves (e.g. career satisfaction) and other-referent standards that are relative to those of others (e.g. salary or promotion). According to Heslin (2005), self-referent success standards largely reflect the individual's career-related standards and aspirations. By contrast, other-referent standards comprise comparisons with others, such as whether one is paid more or less than the industry average or a colleague who performs a similar role in the same or another organisation (Heslin, 2005).

A study by Heslin (2003) found that people do in fact ponder their career success relative to work-related expectations and outcomes attained by others, as well as relative to the self-referent criteria (career satisfaction being the focus of this research study). According to Heslin (2003), career satisfaction is most often assessed using the widely adopted (self-referent) career satisfaction scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990). Consistent with social comparison theory, this scale shows that individuals evaluate their career satisfaction relative to the expectations and outcomes attained by other individuals, as well as relative to their personal aspirations, especially when they hold entity beliefs (Heslin, 2003, 2005).

Although the subjective careers of individuals in similar socio-demographic characteristics and employment circumstances (e.g., women or men, academics, lawyers, scientists or engineers) may overlap, it would be incorrect to conclude that all these members of a particular category would share similar subjective career aspirations (Arthur et al., 2005; Bailyn, 1989). Hall and Chandler (2005) argue that when the person feels a sense of calling in his or her career, it provides a sense of purpose characterised by doing work out of a sense of inner direction and motivation that is not driven by instrumental goal seeking. Research studies have shown that women's success is more focused on the personal notion of balance and relationships as opposed to men who perceive that other goals could be pursued only when a certain level of material or financial success has been achieved (Chinyamurindi, 2016; Dyke & Murphy, 2006).

The influence of work centrality on subjective career success is often significantly stronger for women than for men (Mayrhofer et al., 2008). A study by Tlaiss and Kauser (2011) revealed that the career success of women managers was mainly attributed to their satisfaction with the subjective rather than the objective aspects of their careers. For instance, a study of women paediatric surgeons by Caniano, Sonnino, and Paolo (2004) reported that, although the women experienced higher levels of career satisfaction, they desired more time with family and personal interests. Mayrhofer et al. (2008) confirm the effects of family responsibilities on

career success and more specifically, found a negative relationship between family responsibilities and subjective career success.

The findings of Afiouni (2014) also point in this direction, suggesting traditional gender roles and the needs and desires of family and significant others often shape personal conceptualisation of women's career success. This view is supported by Cabrera (2009) who suggests that the difficulty of fulfilling both family responsibilities and work demands led women to trade careers that had allowed them to achieve high levels of objective success for careers that typically provided fewer monetary rewards, yet allowed them to achieve subjective career success. While the notion of career success is not clearly gender-specific, the path to objective career success for women largely differs from men (Lirio et al., 2007). Research studies suggest that the career success of women is often achieved due to the presence of family support and the influence of organisational policies and legislative mandates, whereas men are often successful regardless of family structures and every so often due to organisational opportunities (Chinyamurindi, 2016; Hewlett, 2002; Lirio et al., 2007; Schneer & Reitman, 2002).

Researchers have highlighted that the predictors of objective career success differ from the predictors of subjective success and that even within different aspects of objective and subjective success, predictors differ (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Stumpf, 2014). For instance, the observation that salary, promotion, and career satisfaction represents conceptually distinct facets of career success, it cautions researchers and practitioners not to suppose that objective and subjective career success will be predicted by similar variables (Ng et al., 2005). Therefore, the foregoing discussion highlights the importance of examining variables which influence the career satisfaction of professional women further.

While previous career literature has been valuable in identifying several psychosocial factors influencing career satisfaction as a measure of subjective career success, there is a paucity of research that has examined the combined effect of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy as well as perceived organisational and social support on the career satisfaction among professional women. On the basis of the above literature review, this research study aimed to extend research on the psychosocial attribute constructs that influence the perceptions of career satisfaction among professional women. The present study proposes a positive relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction. Hence, professional women who perceive higher levels of psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and

self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) will report greater career satisfaction than professional women who perceive low levels of psychosocial attributes.

2.3 CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN: THEORETICAL MODELS

Career development encompasses an integral part of one's developmental experience in the world of work and concerns the whole person in an ever changing context of the individual's life (Sharma, 2016; Wolfe & Kolb, 1980). As such, the dynamics of environmental pressures and constraints, the bonds that tie the person to significant others, responsibilities to children and aging parents and the overall structure of one's circumstances are also issues that must be understood and reckoned with (Patton & McMahon, 2014; Wolfe & Kolb, 1980). According to Traetta and Annese (2011), career development is a learning trajectory that is shaped through participation in professional contexts, communities, social practices and culture. Greenhaus et al. (2010) define career development as an on-going process with series of stages each of which is characterised by fairly unique issues, themes and tasks.

A common basic assumption behind the age/stage models of career development is that there are series of predictable tasks that occur at more or less predictable times during the course of a career (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005). However, women's career development is more complex than that of their men counterparts as a result of a number of internal and external barriers, including early gender role orientation, employment inequities, and family responsibilities, issues which complicate and restrict their career choices and advancement (Coogan & Chen, 2007; Chinyamurindi, 2016). Different expectations about the roles of men and women common in most, if not all, societies continue to influence women's career development throughout their working lives (Omair, 2010). These different sets of expectations (such as prescribed family responsibilities clustered around caring for others and balancing work) may cause women to express different values as well as the way they view career advancement (Dyke & Murphy, 2006; Saadin, Ramli, Johari, & Harin, 2016).

Multiple family roles have traditionally caused women to experience interruptions with less orderly career paths, which often force them to adapt to limited opportunities by becoming job, instead of being career-oriented (Schellenberg, Krauss, Hättich, & Häfeli, 2016; White, 1995). According to Omair (2010), the traditional career development model as commonly practiced today has triggered several points of criticism primarily because early career studies represented career experiences for young middle-class men. Cook, Heppner, and O'Brien (2002) assert that certain assumptions of career theory implicitly reflect male experiences and are problematic for women in the following ways:

- Work is central and essential in people's lives.
- Individuals are responsible for making independent decisions to actualise their career potential.
- Individual assessment reflects an assumption that knowledge about individual traits and preferences is the most important factor in optimal career decision-making.
- Career development maintains an orderly, linear progression with rewarding involvement over time.
- The focus is on work roles with little exploration of other life roles that are common to women.
- The world of work facilitates individual autonomy, rewards hard work with economic success and fulfilment of occupational dreams.

There is evidence to suggest that women's careers may evolve in a counter fashion to the classic male career development models that represent the middle and later career years with stability, maintenance and decline (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005). Career theory has evolved over time to provide a better understanding of how individuals approach the integration of multiple-role fulfilment in a larger social context (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2011). Career development theory suggests that the interaction of the individual's distinctive qualities (abilities, interests and personality) with the external environment (such as parental socioeconomic level) during a series of life stages (growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline) determines the nature of a person's career patterns and eventually work and life satisfaction (Sharf, 2014; Super, 1953).

Contemporary perspectives on career articulate the concepts of a boundaryless career in which individuals exercise independence from rather than dependence on the traditional organisations, namely opportunities that go beyond any specific employer and a protean career that represents orientations that are values-driven with a self-directed career management (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996). Although women used the boundaryless career model in the last decade (Briscoe & Hall, 2006) out of necessity, family responsibilities, personal demands, trailing spouse issues and barriers of discrimination in the workplace led women to pursue discontinuous and interrupted careers (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). While these trends offered suggestions to address how women could keep their career options open, professional women continued to experience high levels of conflict making it difficult to perform at maximum capacity in any of their work-related or personal roles (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2011).

From the literature, it is apparent that the career development of women encompasses the environment, interaction, changes and interruptions (Patton & McMahon, 2014). As such, the present study focused on Holland's (1997) personality and occupational types, the ecological model (Cook et al., 2002) and the kaleidoscope career model (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005) in an attempt to gain an understanding of the career development of women.

2.3.1 Holland's theory of personality and occupational types

Holland's (1997) theory was applicable to this study, since the model plays a significant role in understanding the interrelationships between personal attributes and work environments as a means of predicting the career choices or decisions of individuals, how satisfied they will be with their careers, and how well they will perform (Patton & McMahon, 2014). In addition, the Holland model is one of the major career developmental theories which takes a cognitive, problem-solving approach to career planning and has been important in career counselling (Patton, 2013). Holland's (1997) personality and occupational theory suggests that individuals make career choices as a result of their preference for situations and environments that satisfy their unique personality orientations, interests and values. In addition, the theory suggests that people search for environments that allow them to exercise their skills and abilities, express their attitudes and values, and undertake agreeable challenges and roles (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). Meaningfully, Holland's work has influenced the development of interest inventories, classification of occupational information, career assessment and counselling (Patton & McMahon, 2014).

According to Schreuder and Coetzee (2011), the central idea of Holland's theory points to the fact that, individuals are attracted to a particular role demand of an occupational environment that will meet their personal needs and provide them with satisfaction. Holland's (1997) theory suggests a hexagonal model of six individual personalities (realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional), referred to as the RIASEC model (Patton, 2013). Likewise, career or occupational environments are characterised in terms of their resemblance to and support of the six personality categories referred to as modal-occupation-orientation (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). Schreuder and Coetzee (2011) provided the following description of Holland's (1996) theory:

- The six basic modal-personal-orientations and six modal-occupation-orientations are based on the belief that people enter and stay in work that is similar or is congruent with their personality type.

- These personality types are characterised by preferences for and aversions to particular activities.
- Preferences form personal dispositions towards particular occupations where the individuals can express their personality.
- The choice of a career is thus an extension of one's personality and the characteristics of the environment and the stability of a career choice are dependent on the dominance of personal orientation.

Holland's (1997) typology is beneficial in facilitating career choice and decision making in the early life stage (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). In addition, the theory remains one of the most useful theories in career guidance and counselling, since it provides an easy framework for conceptualising all occupations (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2011; Patton & McMahon, 2014). However, the possible easiness of its application may lead to misuse of results as less experienced counsellors may recommend a limited number of career choices when using the six modal personality/interest types (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2011). While there is general support for Holland's (1997) theory, the theory has been criticised for not addressing the career development of women, ethnic or racial groups adequately (Rees, Luzzo, Gridley, & Doyle, 2007; Patton & McMahon, 2014). Holland (1996) having described his theory as an approach with a one-size-that-fits-all orientation, later admitted that some people, including some of the well-educated middle-class white women disagreed with his assertions. In particular, Patton (2013) pointed out that the pervasiveness of gender role socialisation could be the reason why women are concentrated in social-type occupations, and why they have an aversion to other type occupations, such as those that particularly require thorough grounding in mathematics and science.

In conclusion, there is general support for Holland's person–environment fit model as a useful way of thinking about the interaction between individuals and their environment (Patton & McMahon, 2014; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). However, the important theoretical basis of stereotypes in articulating decisions about occupational interests remains a key limitation in applying Holland's (1997) theory to the career development of women (Patton, 2013). One of the possibilities of the limitation the lack of theories of women's personality and development available in the conceptualisation of this typology (Rees et al., 2007). For instance, Coogan and Chen (2007) argue that girls limit themselves in respect of some occupations they would consider pursuing, disregarding stereotypically male occupations in favour of stereotypically female occupations. Although Holland's (1997) theory tried to illustrate the application of the classified characteristics to distinguish between women who become homemakers and those who become career women, it remains limited by its failure to acknowledge the powerful

restrictive influence of gender socialisation (Patton, 2013). Therefore, the surge of women into the workforce in the first decade of the twenty-first century and women rising to higher positions in organisational and societal factors, including developmental differences from men, suggests a need for a contemporary career development theory that explicitly addresses women's lives and experiences (Omair, 2010).

In the next section, the kaleidoscope career model that provides a perspective on the career choices and decisions of women is discussed.

2.3.2 The kaleidoscope career model

Despite changes in the workplace and societal norms as well as advances in gender equality, there remain dramatic differences between the careers of men and women largely because women's career decisions are normally part of an intricate web of relational and interconnected issues that have to be delicately balanced (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). According to August (2011), the continual interplay of these multiple issues help to explain why many successful and talented women decide to opt out for less demanding careers at critical points, sometimes at the brink of career advancement. One of the models that have shown great potential for studying women's non-linear career development is the kaleidoscope career model (KCM) (Cabrera, 2009). Mainiero and Sullivan (2006) offer the kaleidoscope career theory as a new way of thinking about careers arising from gender issues, valuing gender and context rather than making it irrelevant in the study of careers. The KCM also illustrates how women shift and move the facets of their lives around so that they find the pattern that best resembles their life circumstances and needs (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006).

In defining KCM, Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) used the representation of a kaleidoscope that creates changing patterns when its tube is rotated and its glass chips fall into new arrangements. Similarly, the KCM describes how women shift their career patterns by rotating diverse aspects of their lives to arrange their roles and relationships in novel ways (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Women consider the choices and options available to them through the lens of the kaleidoscope in order to decide on the best possible fit among work demands, constraints and opportunities as well as relationships and personal interests and values (Sullivan, Forret, Carraher, & Mainiero, 2009). The KCM provides three parameters or needs (authenticity, balance and challenge) which are always present and ever interacting but take on different levels of importance or intensity based on the woman's life occurrences at a specific point to influence her career decisions (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008).

Mainiero and Sullivan (2005, 2006) described these parameters or needs regarding career development as follows:

- *Authenticity* is defined as being genuine and true to oneself, knowing one's strength and limitations in the midst of a perpetual interplay between personal developments, work and no-work issues. It causes individuals to prefer work that is compatible with their values. In mid-to-late careers, women are inclined towards authenticity
- *The balance* concept speaks to the need for making decisions so that the diverse aspects of one's life, both work and non-work, form a coherent whole. Women's greater need for balance is often difficult to achieve and is frequently used as a reason for career transition in mid-career when competing demands are at their peak.
- *Challenge* refers to engaging in activities that allow the individual to demonstrate responsibility, control and autonomy while learning and growing. Naturally, women will seek challenge as a primary focus early in their careers.

Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) suggest that although each of these parameters or decision-making questions is active throughout women's careers, certain issues predominate at different points in their life span. For example, a woman may forgo a promotion for childcare or caring for aging parents or better still, opt to take a lesser-paying job to balance the multiple demands in her life at a particular moment (Tajlili, 2014).

Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) developed the ABC model of the kaleidoscope career for women as illustrated in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3

The ABC Model of Kaleidoscope Career for Women

Career stage	Characteristics
Early career (25 to 40 years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women are concerned with goal achievement and challenges in their careers. • Issues of balance and authenticity remain active, but recede to the background while the woman pursues her career interests.
Mid-career (40 to 45 years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This issue of balance moves to the forefront. Women must cope with issues of balance and family/relational demands. • Women wish for challenge and authenticity, but these issues take on a secondary role as compromises are made for balance issues.
Late career (55 years and over)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The issue of authenticity moves to the forefront. Women are freed from balance issues and questions of authenticity arise.

Career stage	Characteristics
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women also wish for challenge and remain concerned about balance, but the kaleidoscope shifts according to the woman's choices and desires in each arena as dictated by her life pattern(s).

Source: Adapted from Mainiero and Sullivan (2005)

According to Sullivan and Mainiero (2008), the kaleidoscope theory refers to three mirrors or parameters (authenticity, balance and challenge) which relate to one another. While the other two parameters (e.g. balance and challenge) stay out of immediate focus but continue to influence the overall pattern actively, the authenticity parameter becomes more active (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). The more intense parameter takes on a leading role in the course of a woman's particular career stage to act as a signpost where she focuses her energy for that period in time (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009; Tajlili, 2014). Sullivan and Mainiero (2008) suggest that these mirrors or parameters combine in different ways throughout a woman's life to reflect a unique set of career patterns and decisions. Tajlili (2014) further indicates that, these key parameters behind the KCM (authenticity, balance and challenge) interact to affect decision-making and create key priorities throughout the career of a woman.

According to Sullivan and Baruch (2009) during a woman's lifespan and in search for the best fit that matches with the woman's character and life context, the parameters alternately shift in response to a specific career stage. For instance, Sullivan and Mainiero (2008) found that although most women discuss their need for finding career challenge early in their lives, issues of balance and authenticity are a secondary concern, but nevertheless important. Therefore, much like a woman's career patterns, as the priorities or circumstances of the woman's life change, a different parameter or need takes over to form a new pattern with concepts that have their own definitions and different goals for success (Shaw & Leberman, 2015; Tajlili, 2014).

A study of 497 professional women by Cabrera (2007) also provides evidence for the existence of the three career parameters identified in the KCM as influencing the career decisions that create career patterns across the women's lifespan. In this regard, 35 % of the women who stopped working cited raising children as their sole reason for opting out of work and 62 % reported that their career focus had changed over time (Cabrera, 2007). A study of older working women by August (2011) demonstrated that the concerns of authenticity, balance and challenge continue to be relevant in their late career and throughout their working lives with several unique meanings associated with the idea of authenticity (such as taking better care of oneself, self-acceptance, finding deeper levels of meaning of work and negotiating end-of-

life issues). In a study of young college women, Tajlili (2014) found that the KCM model provides a way to infuse intentionality in college women's career decision-making as well as a concern for challenge, generation of personal and career goals and clarification of authentic selves in personal and work domains.

In examining men's careers in comparison to women's careers, Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) found the following:

- Men participating in the research focused on realising career ambitions, overcoming challenges and developing their skills first, but came to value personal relationships over time.
- This difference in perspective and timing of the central values of family relationships as opposed to a career reflects a profound contrast between women and men. It also explains why women's careers do not entirely fit into the traditional career stage models that were developed with men's careers in mind.
- While men were inclined to follow a sequential pattern, focusing first on their careers and on families later in life, women were found to focus concurrently on the context of relationships throughout their lives as well as considering all three parameters (authenticity, balance and challenge) at each personal decision point before making any life-changing decisions.

In line with the KCM predictions, more often, numerous pull and push factors work concurrently to create the non-linear, interrupted patterns that characterise women's careers (Cabrera, 2007). For instance, women tend to look for job opportunities that are dissimilar from those preferred by men because the women weigh the costs and benefits of a position with multiple competing forces at play in their lives (Tajlili, 2014). Consistent with the KCM model, Cabrera (2009) found that women often want to obtain balance between their work and non-work lives and that woman at mid-career were predominately concerned about the issue of balance, often adjusting their career ambitions to obtain a more flexible schedule. Consequently, women than men are more inclined to forgo promotions, opt to work in part-time jobs below their level of educational, exit the workforce for a period or find opportunities in which to engage in meaningful work from home (Tajlili, 2014).

In conclusion, the KCM approaches women's careers from a relational perspective with an understanding that women look at their careers as part of their life and attempt to integrate

multiple obligations to form a holistic sense of self (Tajlili, 2014). Essentially, the KCM highlights the significance of potential gender differences in career paths and acknowledges the unique career challenges that women face in a traditionally male dominated work environment. The KCM provides a framework for analysing women's career decisions and serves as a sign post to create a meaningful understanding of women's intrinsic needs for authenticity, balance and challenge in order to maximise their productivity and career satisfaction over their career lifespan (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008).

Consequently, women tend to look at job opportunities differently from men as they consider the costs and benefits of a position with the other competing forces at play in their lives (Tajlili, 2014). However, the relationship between the KCM and career satisfaction as well as the way it can be used in countries such as South Africa still needs to be fully understood. In addition, the cross-cultural applicability of the KCM in later years of career development, (i.e., women 55 years and beyond), is limited (August, 2011).

Next, the ecological model of human development and person interaction with the environment is discussed.

2.3.3 The ecological model

Although the traditional models of career development are believed to be excellent in capturing the how and why of decision-making, they do not satisfactorily meet the needs of women who either by choice or by circumstance, place factors outside themselves as critical and often primary in their career paths (Duffy & Dik, 2009). According to that view, any perspective that is used to postulate the career development of women must accommodate multiple influences that shape women's experiences simultaneously and over time (Cook, Heppner, & O'Brien, 2005).

A number of theoretical frameworks have been developed from ecological or systems theories to try and comprehend the dynamics of women's career behaviour (Patton, 2013). Following the investigation of systems approach, Bronfenbrenner (1977) formulated an ecological model of human development, which focused on progressive accommodation throughout the life span between growing individuals and the changing environment in which they live and grow. According to Bronfenbrenner (1977), the ecological environment is considered topologically as a nested arrangement of structures, each of which is contained within the next. Essentially, the ecological perspective in general suggests that human behaviour is a result of the continuing dynamic interaction between the person and the environment (Cook et al., 2002). For instance,

from early childhood, women's perceptions about themselves and their possibilities are shaped by enduring interactions with others within their immediate environment (Cook et al., 2005).

The Bronfenbrenner (1997) ecological model is defined as an environment that includes structures of:

- The micro-system, which consists of interpersonal interactions, such as at the home, at school or in the workplace;
- The meso-system relates to interrelationships or interaction between two microsystems, such as relationships between the individual's family and the workplace;
- The exo-system is an extension of the mesosystem linked to other specific social structures such as the world of work, mass media and agencies of government; and
- The macro-system, which is referred to, as the general prototypes existing in a culture or subculture, such as the norms and values of a given society.

These structures are nested within one another, with the microsystem at the heart and the macro-systems encompassing all the other sub-systems (Cook et al., 2005).

Based on the premise of Bronfenbrenner's (1997) research, Cook et al. (2002) developed the ecological model for women's career development. Although all four systems are acknowledged, the micro and macro-systems (see above) seem most useful in conceptualising the career development of women (Cook et al., 2005). The interlinking role of the individual and the environment is important in conceptualising the career development of women because of the challenges or barriers that influence women's career patterns (Cook et al., 2002). Therefore, as indicated by Cook et al. (2002), the ecological perspective in the career development of women can be incorporated as follows:

- A person's behavior is a representation of the complex interaction among the numerous factors that constitute his or her life referred to as the eco-system or environment.
- Behaviour is the result of a multiplicity of factors at individual, interpersonal and broader sociocultural levels.
- Typically, the environment represents a necessary pool of information about opportunities, rewards, and obstacles, which the individual must reconcile with his or her career preference, interests, values, abilities and occupational self-concepts.

- An ecological model for career development interventions aims to consider ways of changing person–environment interactions by using various methodologies such as making systems more helpful or affirming, helping clients identify and practice skills to cope with the environment more effectively, or isolate clients’ cognitive processes that shape their transactions within the environment.
- Work towards environmental and societal changes that may facilitate the career development in the present and future as well as empowering clients to change their environments through education and support.
- Ultimately, the ecological perspective aims to shape an optimal person–environment interaction as well as to describe numerous individual, contextual and interactional factors that help women to develop vocationally and also shape their career development.

Flores, Byars, and Torres (2002) indicate that identification of potential internal barriers (such as low self-efficacy regarding attending and succeeding in college, conflict between personal values and a lack of knowledge about self) and external barriers (such as lack of information regarding career and educational options, financial concerns, socialisation and a lack of role models) contribute to achieving positive outcomes from multiple issues that may arise in working with adolescent girls of minority origin.

A case study by Hook and Ashton (2002) confirmed that gender role socialisation, constraint of choices at the micro and macro-system level, internalised expectations and uncertainty about how to balance multiple roles successfully are just some of the barriers that restrict the career development of gifted women.

Table 2.4 illustrates the ecological view of careers of women and provides examples in the ecosystem (environment).

Table 2.4

Ecological View of Careers of Women as Illustrated from the Bronfenbrenner's Ecology of Human Development

Ecological view	Strategies
Early development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In the microsystem, children's perceptions can be broadened about the world of work by observing how adult women realistically balance home and career priorities. • The way parents and teachers interact to influence girl's career development is a crucial mesosystem. • Role models at microsystem levels play a critical role to facilitate a widening of the perceived acceptable career opportunities as well as dispel gender-stereotyped occupations for women and men.
Adolescence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A sense of identity is developed and children question where they fit in the occupational world.
Late adolescence into adulthood	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assisting women to identify their strengths, defining themselves independently of the consistent myths and stereotypes of society. • At microsystem level, consistent myths commonly limit women's possibilities. • Women encounter perceptions of their interests, abilities, values and commitment to work based on gender and stereotypes which can negatively affect their career development. • The interaction between home and work serves as a salient mesosystem for adult women who struggle to balance relationships with partners and caring for children or aging relatives with the demands of the work environment.
Multiple role and career issues for women	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managing time demands of multiple roles by changing societal norms and values regarding flexible work hours helps women select nontraditional and high-paying jobs • At macrosystem level, create healthy working environments by paying attention to sexual harassment in the workplace to ensure women have access to safe working situations that are not harmful to their physical and psychological health as well as their career advancement. • Women may feel validated to identify the ways in which a strong orientation toward relationships and family could result in unique support as well as additional demands. • Explicitly addressing how an individual experiences macrosystem imperatives concerning caring for others by paying particular attention to how women assign importance to the needs of significant others and family members in their career decisions. • Organisational mentoring relationships and professional networks for information and support.

Ecological view	Strategies
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Centrality of relationships with others for self-perceptions and life decisions may mean that connection to significant others or family is of utmost importance for women. For instance, in relation to job relocation women may consider family whereas men would consider the job a priority. • Perhaps the most salient and troubling interaction of gender in career development involves the compounded discrimination that women face in the world of work and the denial of access to equal opportunities and resources in the educational and vocational systems. • Creating access to affordable and high-quality child care, which makes women feel that their children are in caring environments, expand the number of vocational opportunities available to women.

Source: Adapted from Cook et al. (2005)

With regard to the ecological model, Betz (2002) cautions on the following:

- Not all women are relationally oriented or are willing to compromise their careers for family reasons or consider relationships in making career decisions, as for some career, maybe the top and in some cases, the only priority.
- The ecological model increases the complexity of assessment and makes research difficult. There is also a need for guidelines for assessment of the ecological system of the individual as well as how to go about evaluating its effectiveness as an approach to career counseling.
- An ecological model is in essence an ideological model, hence, each person's ecosystem (environment) may differ both qualitatively and quantitatively from the ecosystems of all other individuals.

In conclusion, to achieve an optimum person–environment interaction, the ecological perspective indicate that human behaviour is a consequence of the ongoing interaction between the person and several systems in the environment. The ecological perspective shows that reciprocally, the above mentioned systems offer insight into the way in which a combination of specific work and family characteristics affect work performance, quality of family life or family well-being and career outcomes (Greenhaus & Ten Brummelhuis, 2013). Although the ecological model may enrich and improve the career development of women, caution needs to be exercised in assuming that the emphasis of the ecological model applies to all women, since the notion of individual differences within and between individuals remains significant in career decisions (Betz, 2002).

In the following section, the psychosocial attributes are discussed.

2.3.4 Psychosocial attributes

In pursuit of careers in the current dynamic contemporary workplace people need psychosocial resources to solve the challenges and difficult complexities presented by their vocational tasks (Coetzee, 2014a). Psychosocial attributes or resources are defined as individual differences and social relationships that interact and have beneficial effects on desired employee outcomes (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Taylor & Broffman, 2011). A number of studies have concluded that psychosocial attributes are critical in shaping behaviour that leads to success within the work environment (Brown, Bimrose, Barnes, & Hughes, 2012; Coetzee & Harry,

2014; De Vos, De Hauw, & Van der Heijden, 2011; Ohme & Zacher, 2015). Furthermore, psychosocial attributes help to establish measures for success through which individuals assess their careers, work achievements and experiences in the workplace (Coetzee, 2014b). The present study focused on a composite set of psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) in relation to career satisfaction in terms of contemporary careers of women.

Psychosocial attributes have been shown to reflect people's resources for managing career tasks and challenges (Zacher, 2014b). For example, the study by De Vos et al (2011) found that perceived support for competency development appeared to be positively related to career satisfaction. In a study of psychosocial attributes, the findings of Ohme and Zacher (2015) emphasised the importance of career adaptability for more objective indicators of work and career success. Coetzee and Harry (2014) confirm that emotional intelligence and career adaptability are important psychosocial meta-capacities for successful adaptation in various spheres of life, including the domain of careers. In addition, Spurk and Abele (2014) suggest that self-efficacy and objective and subjective career success are dynamically related over time. Culié, Khapova and Arthur (2014) suggest that organisational support plays a moderating role in the relationship between psychological mobility and career satisfaction.

According to Hobfoll (2002), when faced with a wide range of situations, people access resources in themselves that either are centrally valued in their own right (e.g. emotional intelligence) or act as a means to obtain centrally valued ends in the social environment (e.g. perceived organisational support). The present study focused on constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support as psychosocial attributes in the person (psychological) and environment (social) interacting to influence the career development and satisfaction of professional women. These constructs are discussed in Chapter 3 in more detail.

2.4 EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS

The changing landscape of the workforce, which is comprised of increasing numbers of women necessitates unique career development approaches that explain women's career patterns and the context in which their career development occurs (Hoobler, Lemmon & Wayne, 2011). Literature research has documented continued gender role stereotyping, workplace discrimination, existence of male-dominant cultures, unequal job opportunities and family responsibilities of women being the primary providers of childcare as major barriers that hinder

the career development and advancement of women. It was evident from the literature that career development systems which are based on the assumptions of traditional organisational structures and linear male career models are no longer sufficient to address the unique needs of professional women (August, 2011; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008; Tajlili, 2014). Thus, it appears that boundaryless (physical and psychological mobility between jobs or careers and organisations) and protean (values of freedom to make career choices and growth) career approaches are viewed as important career orientations that could assist women to develop their careers, achieve work-life balance and experience satisfaction with careers (Chin & Rasdi, 2014; Enache et al., 2011).

The career development models in Table 2.5 attempted to explain the dynamic and reciprocal interactions between the person and environment to create a meaningful perspective of women's unique needs for authenticity, balance and challenge with the aim of developing an optimum person-environment fit for career development and satisfaction with careers. However, there is a need for more knowledge about factors that positively influence the career advancement of women in organisations and how women could successfully integrate their work and non-work roles to achieve personal fulfilment and satisfaction with careers. A new perspective of constructing a psychosocial profile to enhance the career development and satisfaction of professional women would therefore be a necessary tool for career counsellors, industrial psychologists and HR professionals.

Table 2.5 summarises the comparison of the career development models.

Table 2.5

Comparison of Career Development Models

Model	Personality and occupational theory (Holland, 1997)	Kaleidoscope career model (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005)	Ecological model (Bronfenbrenner, 1977)
Central idea	Individuals make career choices as a result of preferences for situations and environments that satisfy their unique personality orientations, interests and values. Individuals are attracted to a particular role demand of an occupational environment that will meet their personal needs and provide them with satisfaction.	Like a kaleidoscope that creates changing patterns when its tube is rotated and its glass chips fall into new arrangements, the KCM describes how women shift their career patterns by rotating diverse aspects of their lives to arrange their roles and relationships in novel ways.	Human behaviour is a result of the continuing dynamic interaction between the person and the environment.
Usefulness	Holland's typology is beneficial in facilitating career decision-making for individuals who experience career choice problems in the early life stage. Provides an easy framework for conceptualising all occupations.	Provides a framework for analysing women's career decisions and serves as a sign post to create a meaningful understanding of women's intrinsic needs for authenticity, balance and challenge in order to maximise their productivity and career satisfaction over their career lifespan	The ecological perspective models human behaviour as a consequence of the ongoing interaction between the person and several systems in the environment with the aim of developing an optimum person-environment fit to develop vocationally.
Limitations	A major weakness of the theory is that many important personal and environmental contingencies lay outside the scope of the typology	The relationship between the KCM and career satisfaction as well as how it can be used in the South Africa context still needs to be fully understood. In addition, the cross-cultural applicability of the model particularly in relation to later years of career development has not been explored.	Caution should be exercised in assuming that the emphasis of the ecological model applies to all women as the notion of differences within as and between individuals remains important in making career decisions.

In summary, the Holland (1997) personality and occupational theory indicated how individuals have a preference for environments that allow them to satisfy their unique personality orientations, interests and values. While, the KCM described how women enact their careers and evaluate the choices available to determine the best fit among many relationships, work constraints and opportunities so that they find the pattern that best resembles their life circumstances and career needs. The ecological perspective model sought to explain human behaviour as a consequence of the ongoing interaction between the person and several systems in the environment with the aim of developing an optimum person–environment fit for occupational and career development.

2.5 VARIABLES INFLUENCING CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND CAREER SUCCESS

According to Koekemoer (2014), there seem to be limited research studies which focus on factors influencing the career success of women in the South African context. Following an empirical investigation of the predictors of career success, Judge et al. (1995) developed a hypothesised model indicating predictors of career success as outlined in Figure 2.1. Knowledge of factors that influence career success may help individuals to design appropriate strategies that facilitate career growth (Chen, 2012). Research generated confirms the view that career success is driven by a wide range of factors, which include the following:

- Personal meaning e.g., receiving feedback, recognition, motivation, and goal achievement (Du Toit & Coetzee; Visagie & Koekemoer, 2014);
- Human capital e.g., education, learning and development, positions, work experience and competence (Chen, 2012; Ng et al., 2005);
- Personality, family status, gender, career strategies (networking and mentoring), socio-demographic status and stable individual differences (Chen, 2012; Maurer & Chapman, 2013); and
- Social relationships, work-life balance, or organisational support (Chen, 2011; Koekemoer, 2014).

Several such factors that have gained prominence in the literature on career satisfaction are human capital, personality, workplace perceptions and demographic factors (Chen, 2012). Human capital is defined as the individuals' competence, educational, professional and personal experiences that can enhance their career achievement and is often examined as a predictor of career success (Ng et al., 2005). Furthermore, human capital is conceived as one's ability to meet the performance expectations for a given occupation (Hirschi, 2012). Researchers suggest that individuals who invest the most in human capital qualities, such as

education, training, and experience are expected to show high levels of work performance and consequently obtain more organisational rewards than individuals who do not invest in their human capital (Ballout, 2007; Becker, 1975; Ng et al., 2005). According to Young, Milner, Edmunds, Pentsil and Broman (2014), as individuals progress through the career life stages, their income increases in relation to increases in work experience.

As illustrated in Figure 2.1, human capital includes factors such as competencies, education and training as well as career development and work experience. For that reason, human capital theory supports that employees with more education and work experience will get higher salaries than those with less education and work experience (Chen, 2012). Individual differences represent various dispositions, such as ambition, motivation, personality, proactivity or emotional intelligence, which have a potential effect on career success (Maurer & Chapman, 2013). Research studies have also emphasised individual differences (e.g. emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy and level of education) as some of the human assets or capital which contribute to career success (Coetzee and Harry, 2014; Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015; Hirschi & Jaensch, 2015; Chen, 2012). For instance, level of education and self-efficacy beliefs at career entry were found to influence career satisfaction (Abele & Spurk, 2009).

Organisational factors refer to the extent to which organisations provide special assistance to employees, such as challenging tasks, obtaining exposure and visibility, supervisory support, training and skills development opportunities and organisational support (Maurer & Chapman, 2013; Pachulicz et al., 2008). According to Ballout (2007), certain organisational factors aid or hinder individuals in their career advancement to the extent that factors, such as organisational size and internal promotion practices, influence career aspirations for success. This suggests that large organisations are more likely to expedite career mobility and success, so that individuals' salaries increase as they move up the organisational hierarchy (Ballout, 2007).

Socio-demographic characteristics refer to demographic and social background such as gender, race, marital status and age which may have an influence on many behavioural patterns and outcomes, including promotions and salary attainment (Judge et al., 1995; Pachulicz et al., 2008). The influence of demographic factors on professional success is complex, ranging from birth order to socio-economic status (Doubell & Struwig, 2014). The literature indicated that demographic factors recognised as potentially affecting professional success are gender of siblings, race, income, level of education, parents' education level and profession, marital, number of children and age of children (Doubell & Struwig, 2014; Punnett et al., 2009). In a study of professional and business women in South Africa, Doubell and

Struwig (2014) found significant relationships between groups of women on their demographical factors (different birth orders, marital status and respondents with children aged seven to twelve and older than eighteen) and their experiences of career success. Bakan and Buyukbese (2013) indicate that employees with high income levels reported significantly higher levels of satisfaction than did employees with low income levels.

Koekemoer (2014) suggests that internal factors (education, interpersonal skills, network relationships and performance) and external factors (opportunities provided, developmental culture of sharing knowledge and supportive managers and colleagues) mostly contribute to career success. Likewise, Coetzee et al. (2010) are of the view that career preferences or orientations provide valuable information regarding the motives and values that drive an individuals' career decision-making and are helpful in achieving career satisfaction.

Figure 2.1 below depicts the variables suggested to predict career success.

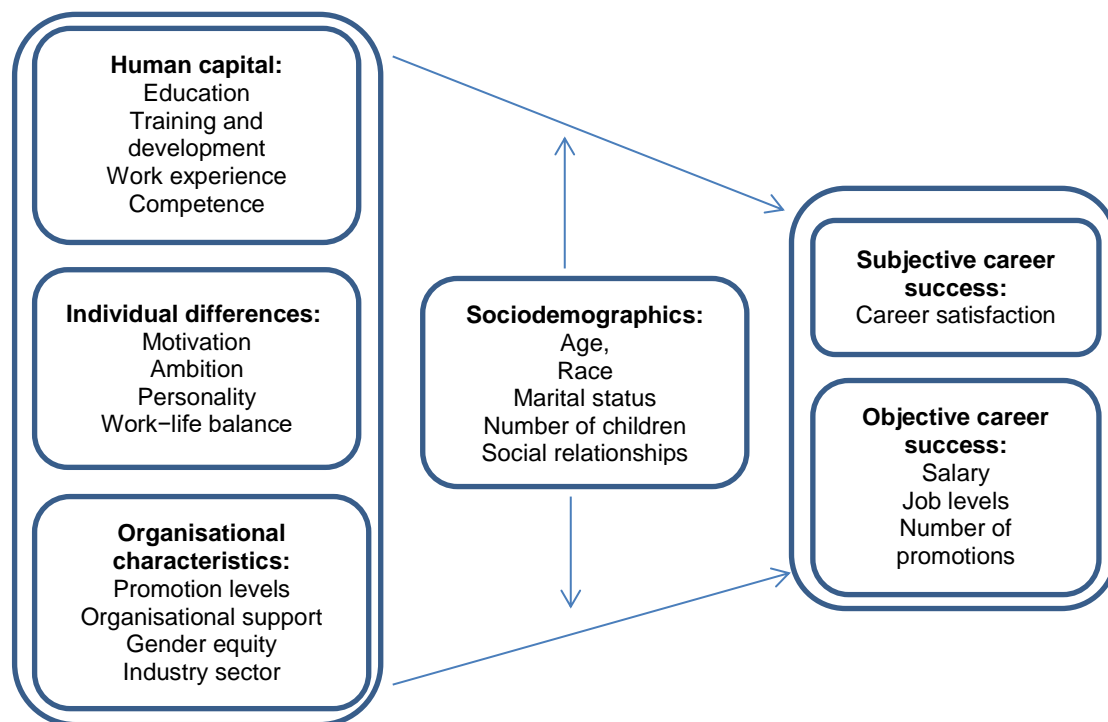


Figure 2.1. Variables influencing career success (Adapted from Judge et al., 1995)

A review of research studies indicates that gender, personality, career strategies, education and social perceptions are the commonly identified antecedents of career success and development (Coetzee et al., 2010; Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007; Kapoutsis, Papalexandris, Thanos, & Nikolopoulos, 2012; Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011; Chen, 2012). In relation to personality, Seibert, Kraimer, and Crant (2001) indicate that

the proactive personality manifests itself in specific behaviours and cognitions which account for differences in career-related outcomes. Seibert et al. (2001) point out that highly proactive employees are more actively engaged in behaviours that positively contribute to career progression and satisfaction than less proactive employees.

Research by Kuznia, Kerno and Gilley (2010) indicates that, as individuals increase participation in career-related continuous development, their career success increases. Similarly, education and qualifications are viewed as important human capital variables which contribute to the prediction of salary increases (Evers & Sieverding, 2013). Ng et al., (2005) noted that human capital and socio-demographic predictors generally display stronger relationships with objective success whereas organisational sponsorship and stable individual differences are generally more strongly related to subjective success. However, as career interruptions are professed to be detrimental to human capital variables, parental leave (i.e., the main reason for women's career interruptions) suggests drawbacks in women's career advancement (Evers & Sieverding, 2013).

In this regard, De Vos et al. (2011) argue that, in their study, employee participation in competency development initiatives as well as perceived support for competency development was positively associated with worker perceptions of career satisfaction and perceived marketability. Du Toit and Coetzee (2012) further found that attaining a higher qualification, personal growth and development were related to subjective career success. Rode, Arthaud-Day, Mooney, Near and Baldwin (2008) indicate that gender, emotional intelligence and a proactive personality are indicators of career success.

In contrast, a study by Riordan and Louw-Potgieter (2011) found that motivational valence was positively related to objective career success and negatively related to subjective career success, whereas self-efficacy and motivational expectations were positively related to subjective career success. In addition, respondents with higher self-efficacy at graduation were more satisfied with their careers than those with lower self-efficacy (Abele & Spurk, 2009). Chen (2012) found that education is positively related to a higher salary whereas organisational support is significantly related to career development as well as employee career satisfaction. Kuznia et al. (2010) note that attitudes toward one's career, whether positive or negative, may regulate the direction of career development and perceived career success, which in turn could affect participation in career-related continuous learning.

In summary, recognising that human capital, individual differences, organisational and socio-demographic situations in isolation from one another do not provide a complete narrative about

career satisfaction, testing these predictors in combination may provide a better understanding of the career satisfaction among professional women (Maurer & Chapman, 2013). Koekemoer (2014) suggests that there are internal individual and external factors that enhance or increase career success, whereas impeding factors are those that hinder or delay the attainment of career success. Consistent with this view, a study by Kirai and Mukulu (2012) found that the discriminatory practices in the organisation regarding recruitment, selection, promotions and a lack of mentors are the most significant barriers to the career development of women. The present study focused on internal individual factors (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), and external factors (perceived organisational and social support) and biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) as variables influencing the career development and satisfaction of professional women.

2.6 CONCLUSION

In light of the aforementioned issues, it appears the world of work is changing from the traditional careers to boundaryless careers. It was argued that in the workplace, a boundaryless career perspective provides chances of freedom to engage in psychological mobility and proposes competencies that predict career success in a career world without boundaries (Hirschi, 2012). A value-driven and self-directed logic of a protean career often results in multiple career cycles, which allow for accommodation of work roles and family responsibilities as well as opportunities to develop careers of women in order to experience career satisfaction. A review of the key literature showed that women's career development is more complex than that of men. Since the traditional career studies were conceived to be problematic for women because they represented career experiences for men, the present study focused on Holland's typology and the ecological and kaleidoscope models to explain the career development of women.

The career development of women occurs within a context of multiple influences related to gender stereotypes, race, family responsibilities and an unequal employment environment (Cook et al., 2005). For instance, stereotypes, unequal employment opportunities and gender discrimination may create social, psychological, organisational and economic barriers that seriously corrode the actual control women may have over career choices and satisfaction. It may also cause women to settle for careers that underutilise their abilities (Cook et al., 2002). Given the multiple factors associated with the career development of women, it is necessary to assess the challenges and resources available to women carefully in order to enhance their career satisfaction.

2.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 2 presented the meta-theoretical context that delineated the definitive boundaries of the research. It was clear from the literature that with the emerging career landscape characteristic of the contemporary work environment representing orientations, such as a clear identity and enhanced adaptability, women are active career agents of their lifelong career development. However, it is important to note that women's career development occurs within a context of multiple influences related to gender stereotypes or discrimination, family responsibilities and unequal employment opportunities. These powerful determinants beyond women's choosing strongly influence their career development and force them to contend with externally defined constraints of career success.

The present study focused on the constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support as factors influencing the career development and satisfaction of professional women. Professional women could engage in career counselling and development activities to identify their strengths and weaknesses to develop these resources further to enhance their career advancement. Further, a psychosocial profile for career development would be a powerful tool for individuals as career agents, industrial psychologists, HR practitioners and all those involved in career counselling. This tool could be used to deepen an understanding of how career agents' psychosocial profile influences their career development and satisfaction. This knowledge could be useful in designing a career development framework and strategies for professional women.

Research aim 1 (to conceptualise the career development and success of women within the contemporary employment context) has been achieved.

Chapter 3 presents a discussion of the constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support as a composite set of the psychosocial profile for professional women.

CHAPTER 3: PSYCHOSOCIAL ATTRIBUTES

Chapter 3 presents a discussion of the second literature research aim, which pertained to the conceptualisation of the constructs of the psychosocial profile, namely emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support, which may influence the career satisfaction of women. The aim was to determine whether certain aspects of the psychosocial profile allow some individuals to experience career satisfaction more than others. This corresponds with step 2 of phase 1 of the literature review, as outlined in Chapter 1 of the present study (see section 1.8.1).

In this chapter, the constructs of the psychosocial profile and the related theoretical models are explored. The variables influencing emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and the implications for career development and satisfaction are also discussed. This will enable the researcher to develop a conceptual framework for exploring the relationship between the variables of the psychosocial profile from various theoretical perspectives, which forms the basis of the proposed integrated theoretical model.

3.1 CONCEPTUALISATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL ATTRIBUTES

The psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) that formed part of this research study are explained in the sub-sections that follow. This section focuses on the conceptualisation of four psychological attributes: emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy. This is followed by a discussion of the underpinning theoretical models and the variables influencing these resources.

Psychological attributes are the positive psychological traits and states, such as the cognitions, motivations and emotions of an individual, which are generalised and conveyed in different contexts and more specifically in relation to the work roles (Hirschi, 2012). Psychological attributes are internal individual resources which provide a sense of control and are considered important in their own right (Bookwala & Fekete, 2009; Hobfoll, 2002).

In the next section, the construct of emotional intelligence is discussed.

3.1.1 Emotional intelligence

This section conceptualises emotional intelligence and provides an overview of the models of emotional intelligence by Salovey and Mayer (1990), Schutte et al. (1998) and Bar-On (2006). The section concludes with a discussion of the variables influencing emotional intelligence and the implications for career satisfaction.

3.1.1.1 Conceptualisation

The notion of emotional intelligence has its conceptual roots in the work of Thorndike (1920) and Gardner (1983) who both argued for the importance of emotional awareness and understanding as components of social intelligence (Fambrough & Hart, 2008). In the beginning, social intelligence was viewed as the ability to understand and manage people (Thorndike & Stein, 1937). However, Thorndike (1920) differentiates social intelligence from other forms of intelligence and defines it as the ability to comprehend and manage male and female roles as well as to act wisely in social relationships. Subsequent to Thorndike's (1920) ideas, Gardner (1993), in his theory of multiple intelligences, argued for the existence of several relatively independent human intelligences and proposes social intelligence to be one of the seven intelligence domains which comprises interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences.

Interpersonal intelligence refers to one's capability to deal with others through being able to notice and differentiate among other individuals, in particular their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions (Gardner, 1993; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004). Intrapersonal intelligence relates to one's capability to deal with oneself and denote multifaceted and highly differentiated set of feelings (Gardner, 1993; Law et al., 2004). Emotional intelligence can therefore be regarded as personal intelligence divided into inter- and intra-personal intelligence of a person, comprising knowledge about the self and others (Law et al., 2004; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

The original theory of emotional intelligence was developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990) who suggested emotional intelligence to be a set of information-processing skills that individuals utilise to construct reality from emotional stimuli for the purpose of managing life in an adaptive way (Coetzee & Harry, 2014). Although Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000) conceptualise emotional intelligence as an ability similar to cognitive intelligence, Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey (2002), argue that emotional functioning forms an integral part of the individual's reasoning (cognitive) and thinking functioning of intelligence. According to Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004), emotional intelligence is considered operating on emotional information and

they are of the view that emotions govern and often signal motivated responses to situations. Particularly, the role of emotion in explaining and understanding the construction of events is that emotion motivates and energises action, controls and regulates action, and has the capacity to access, orient and develop narratives about events (Brown, George-Curran, & Smith, 2003; Young, Valach, & Collin, 1996).

Intrinsically, emotion is viewed as an integrated state of feeling that involves physiological changes, cognitions about action, and inner experiences that arise from an appraisal of the self or situation (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2007). Furthermore, emotions such as anger, happiness and fear or mood states have an influence on how people think, make decisions and perform different tasks (Brackett, River, & Salovey, 2011). The emotionally intelligent individual is aware of his or her emotions and manages those emotions in the moment in order to respond appropriately and productively to events (Gardenswartz, Cherbosque & Rowe, 2010). Therefore, in understanding the role of emotion in career-related activities, researchers have introduced emotional intelligence to be an important antecedent to career decision-making and success (Brown et al., 2003; Garcia & Costa, 2014; Goleman, 1995).

According to Mayer et al. (2004), the emotional intelligence concept was influenced by a call to broaden the study of intelligence by attending to multiple specific intelligences. Of particular interest were the supposed 'hot intelligences' (see Mayer et al., 2004) which were assumed to operate on social, personal, practical as well as emotional information. Mayer et al. (2007) describe intelligence as a mental ability or sets of mental abilities that permit the recognition, learning, memory for and ability to reason about specific forms of information, such as verbal or performance information and understanding of perceptual patterns. Wechsler (1939) defines intelligence as the cumulative or global ability of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment. Sternberg and Kaufman (1998) are of the view that intelligence is the capability to adapt to, shape and select environments to accomplish one's goals as well as those of one's society and culture. Therefore, intelligence is the capability to adapt effectively to the environment and to learn from experiences in order to achieve goals (Gregory, 2007).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) were amongst the pioneers to suggest the construct of emotional intelligence as the capacity to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, as well as being able to differentiate among them and use that information to guide one's thought process and actions. Mayer and Salovey (1997) further revised and defined emotional intelligence as a set of capabilities to perceive, appraise and express emotion correctly, the ability to utilise feelings to aid thought, the skill to understand emotions and emotional knowledge as well as

to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Underlying these emotional intelligence abilities are cognitive self-regulatory processes, such as objective awareness and appraisal of one's own and others' feelings, the ability to manage and express those feelings and the use of emotions to motivate behaviour as part of the utilisation of emotions (Coetzee & Harry, 2014). Therefore, individuals high in emotional intelligence are able to engage in emotional problem solving that gives them the ability to pay attention to use, understand and manage emotions in order to potentially benefit themselves and others (Mayer et al., 2008).

According to Goleman (1995), emotional intelligence has emerged as an essential skill that is valuable in today's organisations in determining success in relationships, career success and even people's psychological well-being. Further, Goleman (1995) argues that within a pool of talented individuals of a particular profession some emerge as successful performers while others remain average in their performance as a result of the difference in their emotional intelligence. The basic assumption is that emotional intelligence provides the potential for performance, as opposed to performance itself; hence, how individuals would use this latent potential is a matter of personal choice in managing career-related actions and tasks (Coetzee & Harry, 2014). As a result, emotional intelligence has inspired researchers to explore its relationships with organisationally relevant outcomes such as career success, career adaptability, impression management, career commitment, life satisfaction and psychological well-being (Akpochofo, 2011; Carmeli, Yitzhak-Halevy, & Weisberg, 2009; Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Jain, 2012; Rey, Extremera, & Pena, 2011; Zainal et al., 2011).

In summary, the present study adopted the original ability-trait (mixed) model of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), as illustrated in Figure 3.1 and defined emotional intelligence as a combination of abilities to correctly perceive and express emotion, the ability to access and regulate feelings with understanding, and to engage in emotional knowledge and problem solving that help to pay attention to and regulate emotions in order to benefit oneself and others (Mayer et al., 2008).

3.1.1.2 Theoretical models

Emotional intelligence is regarded as a critical psychological resource for successful adaptation in various disciplines of life (Dahl & Cilliers, 2012). Emotional intelligence comprises interdependent skills in both self-awareness and responsiveness to others (Gardenswartz et al., 2010). From a theoretical perspective, emotional intelligence specifically refers to a combination of intelligence and emotional traits (Mayer et al., 2004). According to Mayer et al. (2007), emotional intelligence involves the capacity to perform accurate reasoning about

emotions and to use emotions as well as emotional knowledge to enhance thought, intellectual growth and problem solving. Emotional intelligence is adaptive for managing social encounters, with highly emotionally intelligent people benefiting from the empathic understanding of others as well as having adaptive skills for constructive communication of context-appropriate emotions (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2012). According to Matthews et al. (2012), emotionally intelligent people tend to perceive themselves as more socially competent, are likely to have better quality of personal relationships and are also viewed by others as more interpersonally sensitive than those lower in emotional intelligence.

There are three approaches to emotional intelligence, the ability model of emotional intelligence (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2016), trait model of emotional intelligence (Petrides & Furnham, 2003), and the mixed model or ability–trait model, which is a combination of both ability and trait emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). According to Mayer et al. (2016), the ability model of emotional intelligence is viewed as standard intelligence, which meets traditional principles of intelligence, namely conceptual, correlational and developmental aspects of emotional intelligence. Trait-based emotional intelligence model focuses on mental abilities related to intelligence and emotion, but also on motivation, non-ability dispositions and traits, such as motives, sociability and warmth as well as global personal and social functioning (Mayer et al., 2000). The final model, the mixed model or ability–trait model is a combination of both ability and trait emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Brackett et al. (2011) argue that mixed models are understood to mix the ability conception with personality traits, which include constructs such as optimism, self-esteem and emotional self-efficacy. Zeidner, Roberts, and Matthews (2002) are of the view that emotional intelligence measures overlap with well-established personality constructs such as the five-factor model (FFM) of McCrae and Costa (2008). This mix of trait and ability perspective can become confusing as it assumes that emotional intelligence is partly a personality construct (Matthews et al., 2012). However, researchers argue that emotional intelligence can essentially be conceptualised as trait functioning (Petrides, Pérez-González, & Furnham, 2007; Schutte et al., 2009). Therefore, Petrides et al. (2009) suggest the notion ‘trait emotional intelligence’ refers to emotion-related dispositions and self-perceptions that are measured by validated self-report inventories.

Mixed conceptions such as those by Bar-On (2006) and Schutte et al. (2009) draw on the ability and trait models. For example, the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory includes 15 self-report scales that measure a person’s optimism, problem solving, assertiveness, reality-testing and other qualities (Bar-On (2006). The mixed model approach to assessing emotional

intelligence draws on self or other reports to gather information regarding the display of emotional intelligence characteristics in daily life situations (Schutte et al., 2009). Three models, namely those by Salovey and Mayer (1990), Schutte et al. (1998) and Bar-On (2006) are presented to understand the nature of emotional intelligence and are discussed in the following section.

a) *Salovey and Mayer's model of emotional intelligence*

Emotional intelligence is a form of social intelligence that involves the individual's capability to reason about emotions and to process emotional information in order to improve cognitive processes (Grewal, Brackett, & Salovey, 2006). According to Brackett et al. (2011), emotional intelligence is associated with relevant outcomes across multiple dimensions that include cognitive and social functioning, physiological well-being, academic performance, leadership and other behaviours in the workplace. A study by Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, and Salovey (2006) revealed that emotionally intelligent individuals received greater merit increases and held higher company ranks than their counterparts. In addition, these employees with higher emotional intelligence also received better peer and/or supervisor ratings of interpersonal facilitation, stress control and leadership potential than those with lower emotional intelligence (Lopes et al., 2006).

Figure 3.1 illustrates emotional intelligence as comprising a set of conceptually related mental processes involving emotional information.

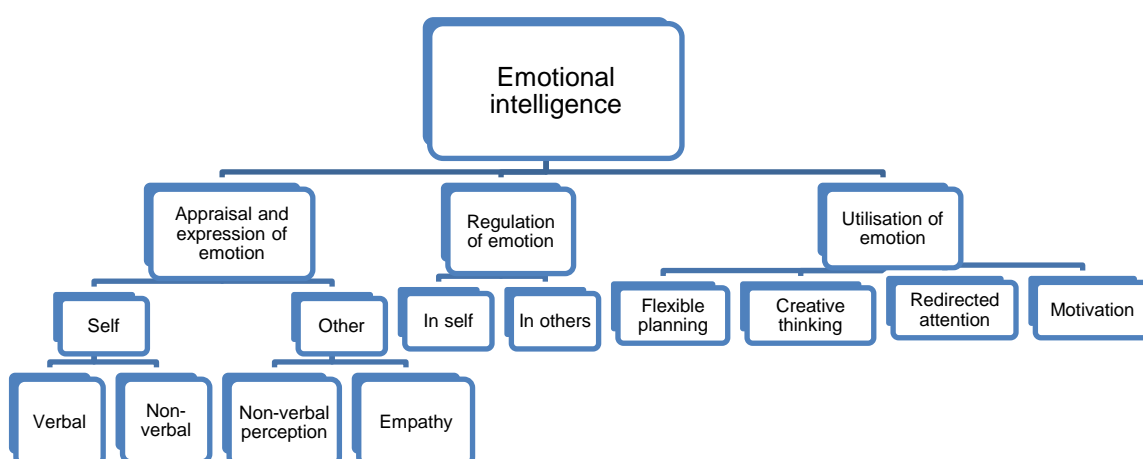


Figure 3.1: Conceptualisation of emotional intelligence (Adapted from Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p. 190)

The ability-trait (mixed) model of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) as outlined in Figure 3.1 suggests that emotional intelligence comprises a set of conceptually related mental processes involving emotional information. These mental processes comprise: appraising and expressing emotions in the self and others, regulating emotion in the self and others, and using emotions in adaptive ways. Salovey and Mayer (1990) argue that although these processes are common to all, the abilities of individuals differ in their capacity to understand and express emotions. These differences may be rooted in underlying skills that can be learned in order to contribute to issues such as performance at work. According to Zainal et al. (2011), to achieve career satisfaction, employees are concerned about emotional appraisal and regulation of emotion, in other words, employees are very much concerned about what other people think and feel towards them.

- Appraisal and expression of emotion

Salovey and Mayer (1990) suggest correctly that appraising and expressing emotion is an essential component of emotional intelligence. For that reason, emotional appraisals somewhat determine various expressions of emotion, be it verbal or non-verbal. Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to quickly perceive and respond to their own emotions and are able to express those emotions to others. In addition, emotionally intelligent individuals can respond appropriately to their own feelings because of the accuracy with which they perceive their emotions.

According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), individual differences exist in the interpretation of emotions through facial expressions, particularly, in relation to empathy (the ability to comprehend other people's feelings and to re-experience them). Emotionally intelligent individuals are skilful at recognising others' emotional reactions and are perceived as genuine and warm by others. Hence individuals with emotional intelligence capability tend to clearly and appropriately communicate emotions verbally, display positive nonverbal body language, are more empathic and display a warm fabric of interpersonal relations.

- Regulation of emotions

Salovey and Mayer (1990) postulate that individuals in their reflective experience have access to knowledge regarding their own and others' moods, which represents willingness and the ability to monitor, evaluate and regulate emotions. Further, regulation of emotion may lead to adaptive and reinforcing mood states. As such, emotionally intelligent individuals should be especially proficient at this process and do so to meet particular goals. In leadership roles,

emotionally intelligent individuals may enhance their own and others' moods or even manage emotions in order to motivate them charismatically toward achieving performance goals.

- Utilisation of emotions

According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), individuals differ in their capability to harness their own emotions in order to solve problems. When emotionally intelligent individuals approach life tasks, they tend to be at an advantage for solving unintended problems adaptively due to the way they frame the problems, which is not the way less emotionally intelligent individuals may address such problems. Emotionally intelligent individuals also tend to use moods to motivate persistence at challenging tasks. Having framed a problem, emotionally intelligent individuals may be creative and flexible at arriving at possible alternatives to problems and integrate emotional considerations when choosing among alternatives. Finally, individuals with positive attitudes toward life, create interpersonal experiences that lead to better outcomes and greater rewards for themselves and others. For example, such individuals are more likely not to ask how much they will earn in a career, but rather whether they will experience satisfaction in such a career.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) revised the conceptualisation of emotional intelligence to include thinking about emotions or feelings. The revised model is viewed as a set of four discrete interrelated abilities (also referred to as branches) involved in the processing of emotional information. The four branches in Figure 3.2 are arranged from basic psychological processes to higher, psychologically integrated processes. The lowest level branch concerns the relatively simple abilities of perceiving and expressing emotion, whereas, the highest level branch concerns the conscious reflective regulation of emotion.

According to Brackett et al. (2011), the lowest level, the first branch 'perception of emotion,' represents the ability to identify and differentiate emotions in the self and others. This entails identifying emotional experiences in physical states (including bodily expressions) and thoughts. More specifically, this ability permits an individual to identify emotional information in other people, a work of art or objects using cues such as sound, appearance, colour, language and behaviour. The second branch 'use of emotions to facilitate thinking', refers to harnessing emotion to facilitate cognitive activities, such as reasoning, problem solving and interpersonal communication. A basic feature of this ability is expending emotions to prioritise thinking by directing attention to important information about the environment or others.

The third branch 'understanding and analysing emotions', involves comprehension of the language and meaning of emotions and an understanding of the antecedents of emotion. A basic skill in this arena comprises classifying emotions with accurate language as well as recognising similarities and differences between emotion cues and emotions themselves (e.g. blends of feeling, such as feeling both interested and angered). The fourth branch 'reflective regulation of emotions', refers to the ability to prevent, reduce, enhance or modify an emotional response in the self and others, as well as being able to experience a variety of emotions while making decisions about appropriateness or the efficiency of an emotion in interpersonal circumstances to achieve personal goals and adaptive outcomes.

Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to understand and express their own emotions, recognise emotions in others, and regulate and use emotions as a basis for thinking to motivate adaptive behaviours (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Emotionally and socially intelligent individuals are able to manage social, personal and environmental changes successfully by coping realistically and flexibly with the immediate situation, as well as solving problems and making decisions (Bar-On, 2006). Ultimately, individuals need to manage emotions so that these work for and not against them and they also need to be sufficiently optimistic, positive and self-motivated (Bar-On, 2006).

Below, Figure 3.2 depicts the four-branch model arranged from basic psychological processes to higher, psychologically integrated processes, which relate to emotional intelligence.

Reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth

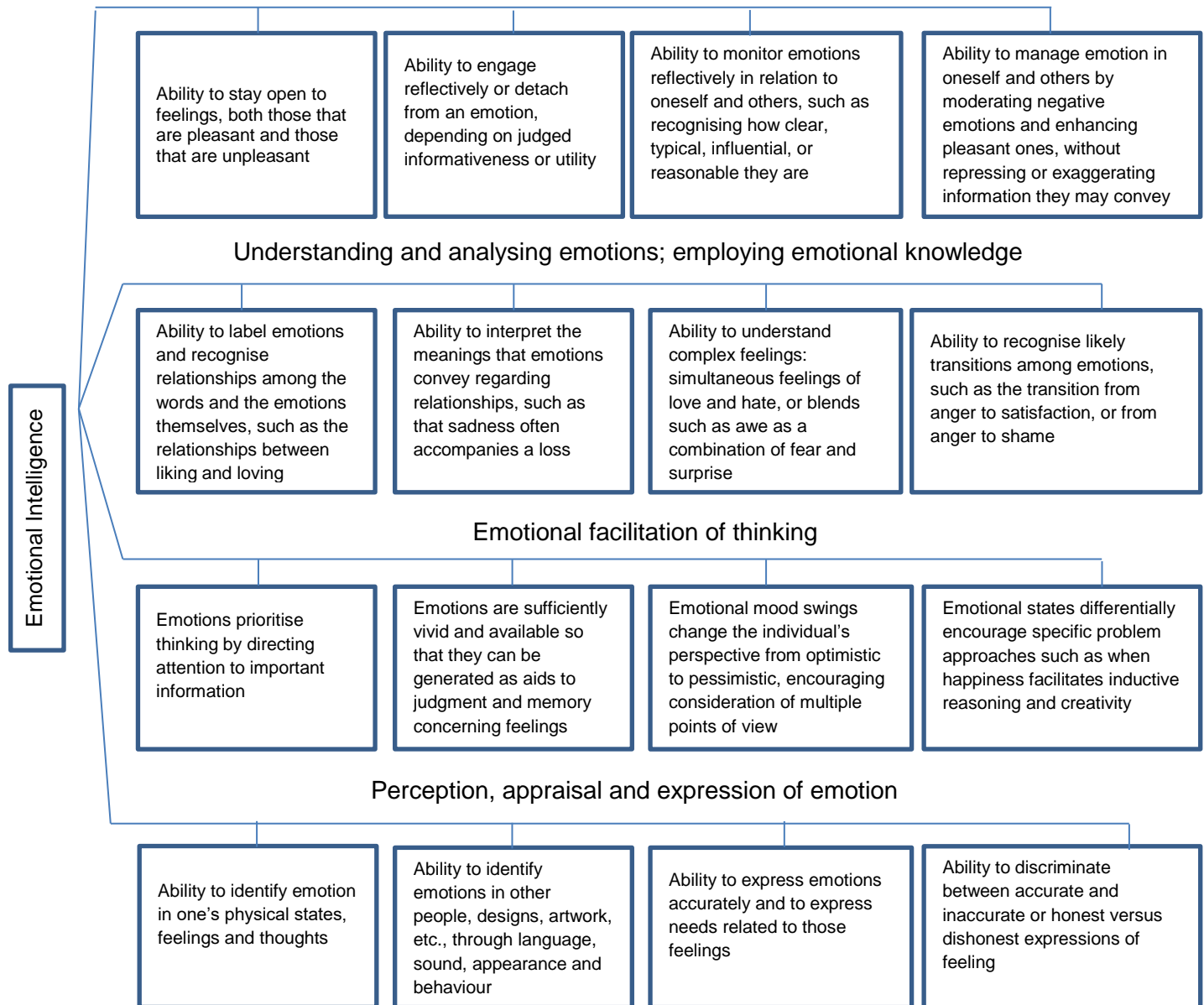


Figure 3.2: A four-branch model of the skills involved in emotional intelligence (Adapted from Mayer and Salovey, 1997, p. 11)

b) Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence

The early work of Darwin (1965) on the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation underpins the development of the Bar-On model (1997), which both emphasises the importance of emotional expression and also views the outcome of emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour (Bar-On, 2006). In addition, Bar-On (2006) cites the influence of the model on Thorndike's (1920) description of social intelligence as well as Wechsler's (1940) observations related to the effect of non-cognitive and conative aspects referred to as 'intelligent behaviour'. Bar-On (1997) developed a non-cognitive model of emotional

intelligence, which is composed of a range of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills (emotional, personal and social) that influence one's capability to succeed in coping effectively with environmental demands and pressures.

Hence, Bar-On (1997) conceptualised emotional-social intelligence by combining the emotional and social intelligence constructs. According to Bar-On (2006), emotional-social intelligence is defined as a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine the way individuals effectively understand and express themselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands of life.

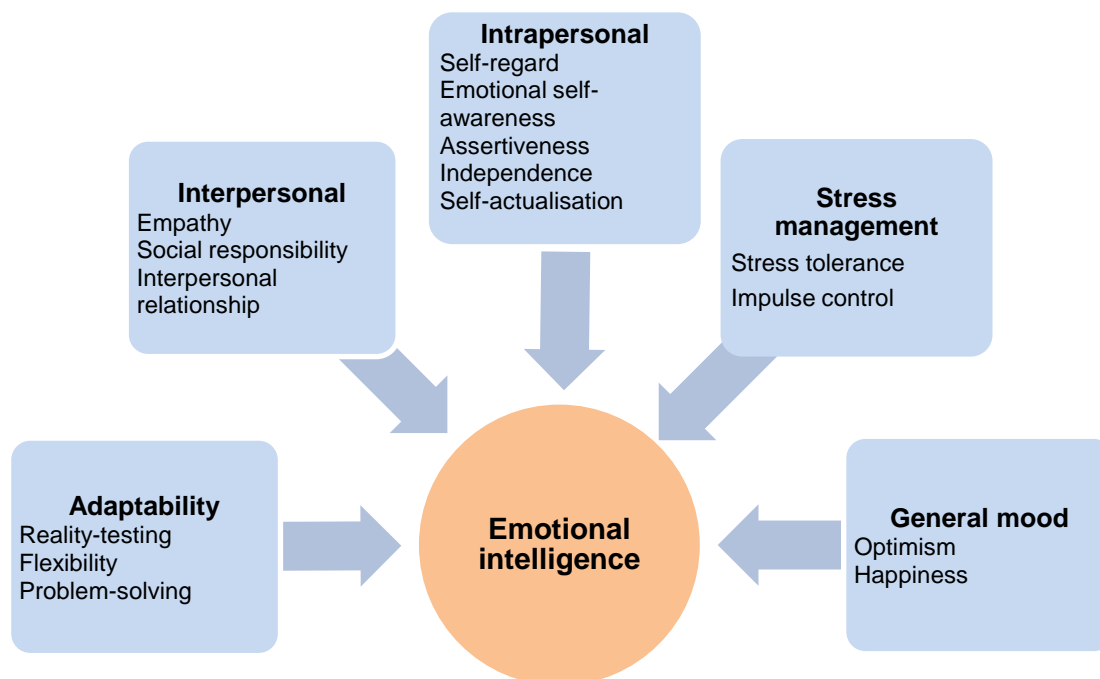


Figure 3.3: Model of emotional intelligence (Adapted from Bar-On, 2006, p. 23)

According to Bar-On (2006) and as illustrated in Figure 3.3, the conceptualisation of emotional-social intelligence includes five dimensions (intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, adaptability and general mood) that comprise 15 components, which are discussed as follows:

- The Intrapersonal dimension which, determines self-awareness and self-expression of the individual, comprises self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence and self-actualisation. Self-regard refers to the ability to perceive, understand and accept oneself correctly. Emotional self-awareness involves being aware of and understanding one's emotions. Assertiveness refers to the capacity to express one's emotions as well as oneself successfully and constructively. Independence is to be self-sufficient and free of emotional reliance towards others.

Self-actualisation allows the individual to strive towards achieving personal goals and realising his or her potential.

- The interpersonal dimension, which expresses social awareness and interpersonal relationships, comprises empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationship. Empathy refers to being aware and understanding how others feel and then being able to respond in an appropriate manner. Social responsibility denotes the capacity to identify with a social group and foster cooperation to achieve an intended goal, whereas interpersonal relationships denotes the capacity to create mutually satisfying relationships and interacting well with others.
- Stress management, which refers to emotional management and regulation comprises stress tolerance and impulse control. Stress tolerance relates to the ability to control emotions constructively and successfully, whereas impulse control amounts to regulating emotions effectively and constructively.
- Adaptability relates to how individuals manage change, and comprises reality-testing, flexibility and problem solving. Reality-testing describes the ability to verify one's feelings and thinking objectively with what exists in the outside world. Flexibility relates to adapting and modifying one's feelings and thinking to novel situations. Problem solving involves the ability to solve personal as well as relational problems successfully.
- General mood, which relates to self-motivation, comprises optimism and happiness. Optimism describes the ability to be positive and looking at the brighter side of life even in difficult situations. Happiness refers to feelings of satisfaction with one's life experiences, those of others and overall existence.

Several studies conducted by Bar-On (2006) and other researchers resulted in the following findings regarding emotional-social intelligence:

- Bar-On (2010) suggests that emotional intelligence has a positive and significant influence on occupational performance, happiness, well-being and a quest for a more meaningful life.
- Several studies conducted demonstrate that there is a significant relationship between emotional-social intelligence and occupational performance (Bar-On, 2006). Findings by Bar-On, Handley and Fund (2005) suggest that higher performers in the workplace have significantly higher emotional-social intelligence than lower performers.

- According to a study conducted by Bar-On (2005), there is a relatively strong relationship between emotional intelligence and the interpersonal component of subjective well-being.
- A study by Dries and Pepermans (2007) found that high potentials at high managerial levels display high scores of emotional intelligence than non-high potentials. Hence, high potential displays high levels of job performance and supposedly less boundaryless career attitudes.
- Boyatzis, Good and Massa (2012) indicate that emotion-social intelligence significantly predicts leader performance.
- In a study of hospital employees by Ghoreishi et al. (2014) there was a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and age, namely that the staff over 40 years of age had higher emotional intelligence than those younger than 40 years.

In view of the above discussion, to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to understand and express oneself effectively, to understand and relate well with others and to cope successfully with the daily challenges, pressures and demands of life. Bar-On (2006) argues that emotional-social intelligence is a combination of numerous intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies or skills. According to Bar-On (2006), to be an emotionally and socially intelligent person is based on one's intrapersonal ability to be aware of the self, to understand one's strengths and weaknesses and to express one's thoughts and feelings in a non-destructive way. At the interpersonal level, to be emotionally and socially intelligent comprises the capacity to be aware of others' feelings, needs and emotions and to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships.

In conclusion, the discussion above shows that emotional-social intelligence as conceptualised by Bar-On (1997) is a multi-factorial collection of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that influence one's ability to recognise, understand and manage emotions, to relate with others and to adapt to change. Emotional-social intelligence also helps solve personal and interpersonal problems as well as to cope effectively with the daily challenges, demands and pressures both socially and in the workplace (Bar-On, 2006). Furthermore, showing that the emotional-social intelligence concept is both teachable and can be learnt and that its factors can be improved highlights the importance and usefulness of this model (Bar-On, 2006). However, Matthews et al. (2012) are of the view that the overall emotional intelligence score described by Bar-On (2000) as 'emotional quotient' drew

scepticism, because it is understood to be a combination of extraversion, neuroticism, agreeableness and conscientiousness (facets of the FFM) (McCrae & Costa, 2008). In addition to such concerns, some of the conceptually weaker measures of Bar-On (2006) include subscales for positive mood, which are also associated with qualities of optimism (Matthews et al., 2012).

c) *Schutte et al's model of emotional intelligence*

Schutte, Malouff, Simunek, McKenley and Hollander (2002) define emotional intelligence as the tendency to perceive, understand, regulate and harness emotions adaptively in the self and others. Schutte, Malouff, and Thorsteinsson (2013) argue that the art of perception, understanding, utilising and managing emotions effectively in the self and others encompass the core of emotional intelligence.

According to Schutte et al. (2013), competencies in perception of emotion comprise distinguishing emotion-related facial and voice clues of others and awareness of one's own body states linking to emotion, whereas, competency in understanding one's own and others' emotions entails knowing the causes and consequences of different emotions as well as the ability to differentiate between changing emotions. Additionally, managing emotions in the self and others involves regulating emotions so that they are compatible with the requirements of a situation or the goal of individuals, while utilising emotion involves harnessing the effects of emotions (e.g. drawing on positive mood to enhance creative thought).

The Schutte et al. (2009) model is based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original ability-trait model of emotional intelligence as discussed above (see section 3.1.1.2). Schutte et al. (1998) view the original model of Salovey and Mayer (1990) and the Mayer and Salovey (1997) revised model to be a remarkable process-oriented model that emphasises stages of development in emotional intelligence, potential for growth and the contributions emotions make to intellectual growth. Having investigated the existing measures that assessed the construct of emotional intelligence, Schutte et al. (1998) found that the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On, 1997) and the Style in the Perception of Affect Scale (Bernet, 1996) attempted to measure emotional intelligence with some validity evidence. However, Schutte et al. (1998) argued that the existing measures of emotional intelligence consisted of too many items. Hence, Schutte et al. (1998) posited that there was still a need for brief, validated measures of emotional intelligence that are grounded in a cohesive and comprehensive model of emotional intelligence.

Schutte et al. (1998) were of the view the original model of Salovey and Mayer (1990) lends itself to conceptualising the various dimensions of the individual's current state of emotional development and that most dimensions of other models could be integrated into the Salovey and Mayer (1990) model. Likewise, Schutte et al. (1998) used the original model of Salovey and Mayer (1990) as a basis to develop a self-report measure of emotional intelligence with the hope that this encompassing emotional intelligence model would provide a solid foundation for a measure of individuals' current level of emotional intelligence.

Schutte et al. (2009) developed a self-report measure that reflects dimensions corresponding to the four branches of emotional intelligence in the Mayer–Salovey (1997) conceptual framework. The development and validation of Schutte et al's (1998) measure of emotional intelligence followed the following steps:

- Generation of a pool of 62-items grounded in the theoretical model of emotional intelligence developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990).
- A factor analysis of the 62-item pool suggested a one-factor solution of 33 items.
- The one-factor solution resulted in scale items that represented each of the following categories: appraisal and expression of emotion in the self and others, regulation of emotion in the self and others, and utilisation of emotions in solving problems.
- The 33-item scale showed good internal reliability with different samples. In addition, two-week test–retest demonstrated fairly stable reliability over time.
- The scale showed evidence of validity such that scores on the scale were related to eight of nine measures predicted to be related to the emotional intelligence construct.
- The scale indicated evidence of discriminant validity, proving to be different from cognitive ability, as measured by the Scholastic Aptitude Test (see Slack, 1980). In addition, the measure was not significantly related to four of the big five personality dimensions (see McCrae & Costa, 2008) although it significantly correlated with openness to experience, but not highly enough to be redundant.

Several studies resulted in the following findings regarding emotional intelligence:

- A study by Prentice and King (2013) involving casino host and premium players found that emotional management skills of employees could influence a customer's formation

of emotions and appraisals, which in turn affects attitudes and behaviours of employees.

- Coetzee and Harry (2014) confirmed the predictive validity of emotional intelligence in relationship to career adaptability.
- Akpochafo (2011) found that emotional intelligence was related to the teaching experience of secondary school teachers.
- A study by (Schutte et al., 2001) found that participants with high scores of emotional intelligence had high scores for empathic perspective taking and self-monitoring in social situations.
- Schutte et al. (2002) found that high emotional intelligence was associated with characteristically positive mood and self-esteem.

According to Schutte et al. (2009), the model was further revised based on the factor analytic studies identified by Petrides and Furnham (2003), Ciarrochi, Chan, and Bajgar (2001) and Saklofske, Austin, and Minski (2003) who suggest a four-factor solution (perception of emotion, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions and utilisation of emotion) for the 33 items. These four factor-solutions are illustrated in Table 3.2.

In summary, emotional intelligence comprises adaptive emotional functioning involving interconnected competencies relating to perception, understanding, utilising and managing emotions in the self and others (Schutte et al., 2013). As conceptualised by Salovey and Mayer (1990), several findings show that the 33-item scale adopted by Schutte et al. (2009) is considered to be a reliable, valid measure of emotional intelligence (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Kun, Balazs, Kapitany, Urban, & Demetrovics, 2010; Prentice & King, 2013; Schutte et al., 2009).

It is important to note that the emotional intelligence measure, like most self-report measures, tends to be inclined to faking good. It should therefore perhaps not be used as a method for selecting individuals for jobs or other highly desired opportunities (Schutte et al., 1998). Hence, it cannot be assumed that people have perfect insight into their own emotional functioning, and so it can unfortunately not be assumed that respondents are honest either (Matthews et al., 2012). For instance, research on personality questionnaires indicates that people often unconsciously play up their character strengths and understate weaknesses, especially in high-stake circumstances, such as applying for a job (Matthews et al., 2012; Paulhaus, 2002).

Therefore, Schutte et al. (1998) suggest that the emotional intelligence measure might have value in assessing individuals who want a valid appraisal of their emotional intelligence should:

- they wish to understand the construct's important characteristics so that they can set goals and work towards their predetermined goals;
- if they encounter problems in areas related to emotional intelligence; or
- if they are considering entering settings or careers where emotional intelligence is deemed important.

Emotional intelligence may contribute to work performance (as reflected in salary, salary increase and job levels) by enabling people to nurture positive relationships at work, work effectively in teams and build social capital (Lopes et al., 2006). Moreover, the workplace is an arena for fulfilment of social motivation, and given the emotional dynamics of the workplace, emotionally intelligent employees find both work and relationships with other employees rewarding and satisfying (Matthews et al., 2012). Psilopanagioti, Anagnostopoulos, Mourtou, Niakas (2012) found that emotional intelligence, in particular, use of emotions was significantly and positively related with job satisfaction.

The following section provides an integration of the models of emotional intelligence.

3.1.1.3 Integration of the models of emotional intelligence

The emotional intelligence construct is not without challenges. For instance, there are a number of rather different personal qualities that can loosely be described as emotional intelligence such as an optimistic temperament, sensitivity to feelings of others, and specific skills for handling social encounters (e.g. the skills of the interviewer) (Matthews et al., 2012). Furthermore, the overlap between emotional intelligence and personality is an issue. Contemporary personality theorists largely agree on the existence of five or more basic aspects or dimensions, the most popular being the five-factor model (FFM) (McCrae & Costa, 2008; Matthews et al., 2012). Matthews et al. (2012) argue that some of the dimensions of the FFM appear likely to overlap with emotionally intelligent qualities. For example, conscientious individuals may have self-control and agreeable individuals may be empathic toward others. Therefore, emotional intelligence research poses a fundamental split between researchers as to whether emotional intelligence refers to an objective ability or to a self-evaluation that may not be accurately measured (Matthews et al., 2012).

The emotional intelligence models (Bar-On, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990, Schutte et al., 1998) as discussed in the preceding sections have a number of similarities and differences. These models view emotional intelligence as the ability to be aware of one's emotions, identify emotions in others, regulate them as well as use emotions to motivate adaptive behaviours. Table 3.1 provides a summary of the main elements of the above mentioned models.

Table 3.1

Comparison of Emotional Intelligence Models

Model	Salovey & Mayer (1997)	Schutte et al. (1998)	Bar-on (2006)
Definition of construct	A set of capabilities to perceive, appraise and express emotion correctly, to access and/or generate feelings so as to aid thought, the skill to understand emotions and emotional knowledge as well as to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth	The tendency to perceive, understand, regulate and harness emotions adaptively in the self and others	A cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine the way individuals effectively understand and express themselves, understand others and relate with them and cope with daily demands of life.
Dimensions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perception, appraisal and expression of emotion • Emotional facilitation of thinking • Understanding, analysing and employing emotional knowledge • Reflective regulation of emotions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perception of emotion • Managing own emotions • Managing others emotions • Utilisation of emotion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intrapersonal • Interpersonal • Stress management • Adaptability • General mood
Sub-dimensions	Verbal and nonverbal appraisals, nonverbal perception, empathy, regulation of self and others, flexible planning, creative thinking, redirected attention and motivation		Self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, Independence, self-actualisation, empathy, social responsibility, interpersonal relationships, stress management, impulse control, reality-testing, flexibility, problem solving, optimism and happiness
Relevance to career counselling and enhancing career satisfaction	Promotes emotional and intellectual growth as and develops emotionally intelligent individuals who are able to approach life tasks and solve problems adaptively	Provides adaptive emotional functioning involving interrelated emotional intelligence skills to achieve relationship satisfaction, general well-being, goal achievement and work performance	Designed to increase interrelated emotional and social competencies to enhance individual effectiveness, self-actualisation and general well-being at home, school and in the workplace

Based on the models of emotional intelligence discussed in this section, the Schutte et al. (2009) model of emotional intelligence was preferred for the present study which intended to develop strategies to enhance the career satisfaction of professional women.

Table 3.2 illustrates the four sub-dimensions of emotional intelligence as described by Schutte et al. (2009).

Table 3.2
The Emotional Intelligence Dimensions

Variables	Description	Instrument used to measure the constructs
Perception of emotion	Recognising emotion-related facial and voice cues of others, and awareness of one's body states relating to emotion	Schutte et al., 2009
Managing own emotions	Knowing the causes and consequences of different emotions as well as being able to differentiate between varying emotions	
Managing others emotions	Regulating emotions so that they are compatible with the requirements of a situation or the goals of the individual.	
Utilisation of emotion	Harnessing the effects of emotions, such as drawing on positive mood to enhance creative thought	

Source: Adapted from Schutte et al. (2009)

To conclude, the present study adopted the original ability–trait (mixed) model of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) as illustrated in Figure 3.1, and defined emotional intelligence as a collection of abilities to perceive, appraise or express emotion, access and generate feelings with understanding, engage in emotional problem solving that allows individuals to pay attention to and regulate emotions so as to benefit themselves and others (Mayer et al., 2008).

3.1.1.4 *Variables influencing emotional intelligence*

Some variables have been identified as precursors of emotional intelligence. The key variables of importance in this study comprise the influence of age, race and education level.

i. Age

A study by Van Rooy, Alonso, and Viswesvaran. (2005) observed that emotional intelligence scores tended to increase with age. Ghoreishi et al. (2014) found a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and age, as staff over 40 years of age had higher emotional intelligence than those younger than 40 years. El Badawy and Magdy (2015) found that there is a positive relationship between age and emotional intelligence, reflecting that with age comes experience; hence, older employees are socially intelligent and able to manage their feelings and understand others' feelings, including body language than younger employees. However, Rastegar and Memarpour (2009) found that there was no significant difference concerning their emotional intelligence among teachers with different ages and teaching experience. In addition, a study by Birol, Atamturk, Siman, Atamturk, and Sensoy (2009) revealed that there was no significant difference in teachers' emotional intelligence in terms of age.

ii. Race

A study by Van Rooy et al. (2005) found that group differences existed for race where black people scored higher on emotional intelligence than white people. These results were supported in a South African context by Pillay et al. (2013) who found that the black leaders scored higher on emotional intelligence than their white counterparts.

iii. Education level

Amdurer, Boyatzis, Saatcioglu, Smith, and Taylor (2014) found that people who are emotionally competent at the time of graduation used some of their emotional competence to develop careers in which they are more satisfied and feel successful.

3.1.1.5 *Implications for career development practices*

Research findings indicate that having emotional intelligence capabilities is related to feeling more satisfied with one's career (Amdurer et al., 2014; Lounsbury et al., 2003). In addition, research studies suggest that emotional intelligence is capable of being enhanced or developed, through relevant training and educational methods designed to improve emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour over a relatively short period of time (Bar-On, 2010; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004; Prentice & King, 2013; Schutte et al., 2013). According to Mousavi, Yarmohammadi, Nosrat and Tarasi (2012), emotional intelligence plays a significant

role in job opportunities, job skills and career success. For instance, Amdurer et al. (2014) found that emotional intelligence competencies predict career satisfaction and success. Emotional intelligence training can thus improve understanding of one's own emotions or the emotions of others' to engage in emotionally and socially intelligent behaviours that facilitate career decision-making, and in turn, promote career progression (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011). In particular, Amdurer et al. (2014) suggest that those who are high in self-awareness and social awareness upon entering the workforce may have different levels of insight in making sense of their career experience than those with lower levels of self-awareness. Therefore, to prepare the workforce better, relevant training and education provides insight on how to understand and manage emotions in the workplace (Amdurer et al., 2014).

Emotional intelligence scholars suggest that emotional intelligence is a crucial psychosocial determinant of job and career success as well as adaptation to various areas of life (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Goleman, 1995; Saeedi, Pazvari, Masouleh, & Mousavian, 2012; Zainal, et al., 2011). For instance, emotionally intelligent individuals seemingly succeed at communicating their ideas, goals and intentions in interesting and assertive ways, thus making such individuals appear suited for specific occupational environments than less emotionally intelligent individuals (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004). Goleman (1995) proposes that the intelligence quotient is a strong predictor of which jobs individuals could choose as well as a strong predictor of success among the general population as a whole. Moreover, Goleman (1995) emphasises that with levels of the intelligence quotient relatively equal, emotional intelligence is a strong predictor of who is most likely to become a star performer or marketable for future jobs. In support of this argument, Elfenbein, Der Foo, White, Tan, and Aik (2007) found that emotional intelligence predicts a significant and consistent rise in effective workplace performance among professionals. These findings, suggest that individuals with high emotional intelligence tend to derive career satisfaction in the workplace.

Emotional intelligence profiles might help organisations and individuals to assess the potential they have for continuous learning, including provision of valuable input into the high-potential identification process as well as into individuals' personal development (Dries & Pepermans, 2007). Carmeli et al. (2009) found that individuals reporting high emotional intelligence also reported higher levels of life satisfaction, self-acceptance, and self-esteem than individuals who were relatively low in emotional intelligence. Individuals can benefit from an increased understanding of their emotions and the ability to express emotions in corresponding, non-threatening ways. Moreover, research indicates that attending to the emotional responses of others, along with a sincere commitment to interpret emotions with empathic accuracy are skills

that can be enhanced over time to increase interpersonal effectiveness (Fambrough & Hart, 2008).

Emotional intelligence is suggested to affect a wide range of work behaviours, including employee commitment, teamwork, development of talent, innovation and the ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures (Zeidner et al., 2004). The findings of Di Fabio and Kenny (2011) support the relevance of emotional intelligence for career intervention; hence, emotional intelligence training could be incorporated as a psycho-educational component of career development interventions. Group or individual interventions involving personal reflection offer possibilities for deeper self-exploration. In addition, engaging the whole person could provide unique opportunities for building understanding across differences and creating opportunities for relational growth (Fambrough & Hart, 2008). Furthermore, emotional intelligence may be related to the social skills needed for teamwork and group development since a large part of effective and smooth teamwork requires understanding and managing of emotions for the good of the team (Zeidner et al., 2004).

The career adaptability construct is discussed in the next section.

3.1.2 Career adaptability

In this section, career adaptability is conceptualised and theoretical models are discussed. The section concludes with a discussion of the variables influencing career adaptability and the implications for career satisfaction.

3.1.2.1 *Conceptualisation*

The notion of career adaptability has been conceptualised by several researchers. Savickas (1997) initially suggested career adaptability could be conceptualised using developmental dimensions of self and environmental exploration, career planning and decision-making when participating in work roles. According to Zikic and Klehe (2006), career adaptability is regarded as complementary behaviours of career exploration and career planning. Rottinghaus, Day, and Borgen (2005) define career adaptability as a predisposition affecting the way an individual views his or her capacity to plan and adjust to changing career plans, especially in the face of unforeseen circumstances. Savickas and Porfeli (2012) later redefined career adaptability as a psychosocial construct with self-regulation strengths or capacities on which a person draws for coping with current and anticipated tasks, transitions, and traumas in his or her occupational role which, to some degree whether big or small, alter his or her social integration. Both the

definitions of Rottinghaus et al. (2005) and Savickas and Porfeli (2012) denote self-regulatory processes which emphasise the importance of the interaction between the individual and his or her environment, and highlight managing novel, unforeseen problems that confront the individual (Creed et al., 2009). For the present study, the definition of Savickas and Porfeli (2012) was adopted.

Since the 1970s, career change has progressively become the norm whether because of personal choice or as a result of organisational change (Ebberwein, Krieshok, Ulven, & Prosser, 2004). Along varying stages of careers, individuals face career transitions that require re-evaluation of goals, attitudes, identity or vocational practices (Ashforth & Saks, 1995; Klehe, Zikic, Van Vianen, & De Pater, 2011; Latak & Dozier, 1986; Louis, 1980; Savickas, 1997). Transition is largely evident in women's careers that are characterised by repeated movements in and out of the workforce in an attempt to manage multiple roles and challenges such as satisfying family needs, work and spousal commitments as well as the dynamic role of being a mother (Bimrose, 2008; Kirchmeyer, 2006; Luthans, Vogelgesang & Lester, 2006; McMahon, Watson, & Bimrose, 2012).

According to Ebberwein et al. (2004), when individuals face personal, economic and organisational changes that sometimes leave their careers in turmoil, such changes demand skills for a successful career transition. In addition, occupational difficulties have negative consequences across life domains and psychosocial attributes play a critical role in career transition (Ebberwein et al., 2004). Based on the career maturity model of Super (1984), Super and Knasel (1981) sought to address the career transition dilemma by introducing the concept of career adaptability. Super and Knasel define career adaptability as the readiness to cope with the job, career change or working conditions. Savickas (1997) elaborated the construct 'career adaptability' to denote readiness in coping with the predictable tasks of preparing for and taking part in work activities as well as the unforeseen adjustments as a result of changes in work and work conditions. The term 'career adaptability' is suggested to be a central construct to the career development process and reflects individuals' resources for managing career tasks and challenges (Ebberwein et al., 2004; Savickas, 1997; Zacher, 2014a). Consistently, career adaptability has subsequently been proposed as a key competency in career success (O'Connell McNeely, & Hall, 2008). In addition, research has shown that career adaptability predicts favourable career outcomes such as employees' career satisfaction (Chan & Mai, 2015).

Career adaptability resources should be regarded as self-regulatory, psychosocial competencies that shape adaptive strategies and actions aimed at accomplishing adaptation

goals (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Particularly in work environments characterised by rapid and unpredictable changes, the ability to adapt is crucial to employment quality and future career success (Koen, Klene, & Van Vianen, 2012). It can be argued that career adaptability competencies play an important role in understanding skills development across occupations and occupational sectors (Brown et al., 2012). More specifically, these competencies of career adaptability are suggested to relate to key vocational developmental tasks involving a primary adaptive goal which, when achieved, builds a foundation for career success (Coetzee et al., 2015). For instance, a study by Guan et al (2015) found that career adaptability played a unique role in predicting salary and career satisfaction. Zacher (2014a) found that overall career adaptability positively predicted career satisfaction and self-rated career performance.

Career adaptability includes a mix of attitudes, behaviours and competencies, which individuals use in fitting themselves to work that suits them (Savickas, 2013). Moreover, career adaptability influences the determination to start and sustain behaviours aimed at planning and achieving goals that lead to increased life satisfaction ((Santilli, Nota, Ginevra, & Soresi, 2014). It can be argued that career adaptability enables people to construct their career life actively, while coping with the demands and challenges that they experience in their social and work environment (Santilli et al., 2014; Savickas, 2013). Engaging in career adaptability activities could influence successful career transition and re-employment (Koen et al., 2012). In view of that, career adaptability is relevant to understanding how professional women survive and thrive in today's demanding and challenging work environment (Konstam, Celen-Demirtas, Tomek, & Sweeney, 2015).

In summary, the present study adopted the career adaptability model by Savickas and Porfeli. (2012), depicted in Figure 3.4. In addition, for the purpose of this study, career adaptability was defined as behaviours, attitudes and competencies individuals use to manage and adapt to challenges experienced and transitions relating to varying career stages (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

The concept of career adaptability was conceptualised in this section. A number of theoretical models and theories will now be discussed.

3.1.2.2 Theoretical models

The Savickas (2005) conceptualisation of career adaptability is a central component in the career construction theory and was of relevance to this research. Savickas (2005) developed a career construction theory conceptualising human development as motivated by a need to

comprehend vocational behaviour across the life cycle as well as to adapt to the work environment so that vocational choices adopted maintain successful and satisfying work lives. The career construction theory concentrates only on explaining occupational choice and work adjustment (Savickas, 2006). In negotiating each work arrangement, the prospective employee seeks to make the work meaningful, balance work and family responsibilities as well as experience enhanced career satisfaction (Savickas, 2006; Guan et al., 2015). Furthermore, the career construction theory emphasises the interpretive and interpersonal processes through which individuals ascribe meaning and direction to their occupational behaviour (Savickas, 2006). Hence, the career construction theory (Savickas, 2006) suggests that continuous adaptation to the work environment is essential for achieving work and career success (Ohme & Zacher, 2015).

The career construction theory presents three major components (life themes, vocational personality and career adaptability), which address the coping processes with vocational development tasks and work-related transitions (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

a) Life themes

The life theme component of the career construction theory suggests that, in making meaningful career choices, individuals seek to implement their self-concept and impose meaning and direction on their vocational behaviour (Savickas, 2006). When established in an occupation, individuals seek to realise their potential and preserve their self-worth (Savickas, 2006). Likewise, Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007) postulate that life-career themes are words that clients use to validate their values, attitudes, ideas and beliefs about themselves ('I am' statements), about others ('others are' statements), and about their world views ('life is' statements).

b) Vocational personality

The Savickas (2005) career construction theory builds on the basic premises of Holland's (1997) theory of personality types and vocational tasks. The concept of life themes is then used to knit together the conceptualisation of vocational personality and career adaptability, which directs occupational choice, and shapes occupational adjustment (Savickas, 2005). According to Savickas (2006), what individuals choose to do is the focus of vocational personality, which refers to a person's career-related interests, needs, abilities and values. According to Savickas (2005), individuals form personalities in their families of origin through household chores, games or studying, and develop these personalities in their community and schools in

preparing to enter the world of work. Further, Savickas (2006) postulates that the construction theory seeks to view occupational interests and other career-related behaviours as adaptive strategies through which individuals impose meaning and direction on their vocational development tasks.

The career construction theory suggests vocational personality types and occupational interests as interpersonal principles that reflect socially-established meanings (Savickas, 2005). According to Savickas (2006), the theory focuses on what individuals become when engaged in work activities, not what they are before they engage in work activities, and as such, crossing the bridge between the self and society is known as adaptation.

c) Career adaptability

The third central component of career construction theory is career adaptability (Savickas, 2013). As suggested by Savickas (2006), life themes guide the expression of personality whereas; the expression itself is managed by the process of career adaptation. According to Savickas (2006), adaptation is viewed as a series of attempts to implement a self-concept in social roles such as transitioning from school to work, from one job or occupation to another. Hence, as each transition approaches, individuals can adapt more successfully when they experience change through a process of orientation, exploration, establishment, management and disengagement (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

Career adaptability reflects people's free agency to take responsibility for their careers by allowing them to widen their horizon of possible opportunities (Klehe et al., 2011). Career adaptability necessitates harmonising behaviours such as planfulness, realism, information, exploration and decision making (Super, 1974), career exploration and planning (Klehe et al., 2011), a boundaryless mind-set (McArdle, Waters, Briscoe, & Hall, 2007), decidedness and confidence (Skorikov, 2007). According to Klehe et al. (2011), these behaviours help people to make informed decisions in order to gather career-related information about the environment or the self and to outline future career developments as well as setting and pursuing career goals. According to Hall and Chandler (2005), individuals with high career adaptability have the capacity to engage proactively in the process of goal setting and initiate effort to achieve personal success.

Considering the constantly changing and uncertain working environment, individuals require adaptability resources to solve the unfamiliar problems presented by work demands or new career circumstances (Maggiori, Johnston, Krings, Massoui, & Rossier, 2013). An increasing

body of evidence suggests that career adaptability is an important psychosocial construct, which incorporates a set of essential resources in order to manage unpredictable tasks of career development (Konstam et al., 2015; Rusu, Mairean, Hojbota, Gherasim, & Gavriloiu, 2015; Savickas, 2013). In addition, Guo et al. (2014), suggest that career adaptability contributes to a positive role of promoting professional competence in individuals' career development. These findings suggest that, in an adverse career development environment, individuals with a strong sense of career adaptability tend to cope proactively and are able to develop their career competence (Guo et al., 2014).

Career adaptability has been defined as a psychosocial construct that reflects employees' resources for adapting to future job and career challenges that may affect their integration in their social environment (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Zacher, 2014a). According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), the word 'adapt' means fit or change and has been adopted in different forms, namely, adaptation, adaptability, adapting and adaptivity.

- Adaptation (outcome)

Adaptation refers to flexibility in responding to the environment and also emphasises the interaction between the individual and the environment (Savickas, 2006). According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), people construct careers by using adaptive strategies that implement their personalities in work roles. Therefore, adaptation represents outcomes of adapting behaviours such as work success, satisfaction and development (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

- Adapting (results)

Adapting or adapting responses represent performing adaptive behaviours that address changing conditions (Hirsch, Herrmann, & Keller, 2015). Hence, career adapting implies mastering vocational development tasks and coping with occupational transitions as fostered by five sets of behaviours, each named for their adaptive functions: orientation, exploration, establishment, management and disengagement (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

- Adaptivity (readiness)

Adaptivity or adaptive readiness is the personality trait of the motivation to meet the unfamiliar, complex and ill-defined problems presented by vocational development tasks, occupational transitions and work trauma (Hirsch et al., 2015; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Adaptivity or

willingness to adapt is viewed as a stable and durable trait or basic tendency that is situated at the core of the individual and is often operationalised as proactivity or flexibility (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

- Adaptability (resource)

Adaptability refer to the psychosocial strengths which condition self-regulation in coping with the current and anticipated developmental tasks, occupational transitions and work-related problems (Hirsch et al., 2015; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Further, this resource is not at the core of the individual, but is a psychosocial construct that exist in the intersection of person–environment.

According to Savickas (2005), there is an interplay between the forms of adaptation, adapting, adaptivity and adaptability. Savickas (2005, 2006), suggests that higher levels of adaptation (outcome) are expected for those who are willing (adaptive) and able (adaptability) to perform behaviours that address changing conditions (adapting).

According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), adaptability is usually measured as four dimensions of career adaptability called adapt-abilities resources to manage vocational developmental tasks and occupational transitions.

d) *Four adapt-abilities resources*

The career construction theory (Savickas, 2005, 2006) highlights a set of attitudes, beliefs and competencies – also known as the ABCs of career construction theory. Relative to social and developmental tasks, the ABCs are grouped into four dimensions of career adaptability resources also called ‘adapt-abilities’, namely: concern, control, curiosity and confidence (Savickas, 2013). When combined, these dimensions comprise an integrated indicator of an individual’s overall career adaptability (Zacher, 2014a). Hence, career adaptability denotes self-regulatory resources that are central to actual problem-solving strategies and coping behaviour, which are used by individuals to integrate the self-concept into their work roles, (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012): According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012):

- Concern refers to the extent to which employees are future-oriented and prepare for future career tasks and challenges;
- Control empowers individuals to take personal responsibility to influence their career development and work roles through self-discipline, effort and persistence;

- Curiosity enables individuals to explore possible future selves and opportunities and further prompts the individual to think about how to influence different roles and situations. These exploration experiences and information seeking activities produce aspirations; and
- Build confidence so that the person can realise career goals and successfully solve problems and overcome obstacles (Savickas, 1997; Zacher, 2014a).

Savickas and Porfeli (2012) indicates that, when occupational tasks and transitions or work disturbances occur, the adaptable individual is viewed as becoming *concerned* about the occupational future, increasing *control* to prepare for future occupational transitions, showing *curiosity* by exploring new career information and future possibilities, and strengthening the *confidence* to pursue one's ambitions and overcome challenges.

Below, Figure 3.4 depicts the four Cs' (concern, control, curiosity and confidence) of the career adaptability theory as suggested by Savickas and Porfeli. (2012).

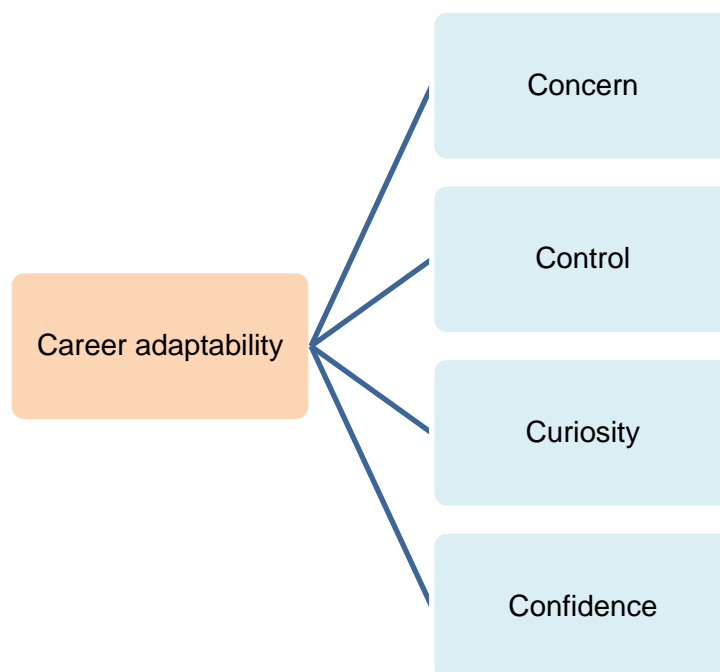


Figure 3.4: The four Cs' of the career adaptability theory (Adapted from Savickas and Porfeli., 2012, p. 663)

A study by Öncel (2014) demonstrated that career concerns were related to future time perspective, career control related to an individual's self-evaluation whereas career curiosity positively influenced proactive personality, and career confidence related highly to generalised

self-efficacy. Findings indicate that higher levels of confidence and control were significantly related to higher levels of life satisfaction (Konstam et al., 2015). Results showed that career concern and career curiosity predicted social work students' professional competence (Guo et al., 2014). In addition, a study by Zacher (2014a) found that concern and confidence positively predicted the two indicators of subjective career success: career satisfaction and self-rated career performance. Results showed that career adaptability, especially career concern, significantly explained employees' level of satisfaction with their experiences of the career opportunities and development opportunities (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015). In addition to this view, Coetzee and Stoltz (2015) propose that individuals who are highly concerned about their careers would tend to be more concerned about the nature of their jobs, because the nature of one's work is seen as an intrinsic motivator and an aspect of individuals' subjective career success.

In summary, career adaptability is viewed as a psychosocial construct which enables individuals to cope with occupational transitions, developmental tasks and manage various life situations and work roles.

It is necessary to identify the variables which influence career adaptability and these are discussed in the following section.

3.1.2.3 *Variables influencing career adaptability*

Some variables have been identified as antecedents of career adaptability. The key variables of importance in this study are age, race, marital status and education level.

i. Age

Previous research showed that older workers' age, moderated the relationship between career adaptability and job satisfaction (Zacher & Griffin, 2015). In addition, Zacher and Griffin (2015) found that career adaptability is a more important psychosocial resource for relatively younger compared to relatively older workers. Research shows that age predicts change in overall career adaptability (Zacher, 2014b). In contrast, O'Connell et al. (2008) found that age was not related to personal adaptability.

ii. Race

The study by Coetzee and Stoltz (2015) found that black participants showed higher levels of career adaptability than white participants, which is possibly attributed to the positive influence of increased intra-organisational career opportunities available to especially black people in the post-apartheid South African workplace, which requires a higher level of career adaptability from black employees.

iii. Marital status

Ferreira (2012) found married participants had higher levels of career adaptability in their careers or jobs than their single counterparts.

iv. Education level

A study by Zacher (2014b) showed that education differentially predicted change over time in one or more of the four career adaptability dimensions.

3.1.2.4 *Implications for career development practices*

The construct of career adaptability is a malleable and self-regulatory resource which can be enhanced through, career counselling and development (Öncel, 2014; Savickas, 2006). Career adaptive individuals are able to manage career-related tasks, deal with job demands, and in turn form a high-performing workforce in the organisation (Tladinyane & Van der Merwe, 2016). A study by O'Connell et al. (2008) found career adaptability to be a key competency for career success. In addition, Maggiori et al. (2013) show that adaptability resources are positively associated with both general and professional well-being. These findings suggest that assessment of individual adaptability competencies is an important component of career counselling as it enables practitioners to evaluate career-related needs and design interventions aimed at promoting successful adjustment to work transitions (Tolentino, Garcia, Lu, Restubog, Bordia, & Plewa, 2014).

According to Brown et al. (2012), career adaptability skills play an important role in the career-oriented learning environment and work transitions. Brown et al. (2012) suggest that career adaptability skills enable individuals to manage both risk and uncertainty in a fast-changing, unpredictable employment contexts. As stated by Guo et al. (2014), the positive role of career adaptability suggests that adaptability skills can be adopted as important instruments to resolve

problems related to the development of professional competence and that a career-oriented learning environment is especially important to improve career adaptability. For example, in career decision-making contexts, career adaptability can be adopted as a tool to help gain insights on how to fit career choices with life themes, or where career choices have been made, to help identify the reasons why individuals cannot get involved in the development of professional competencies (Guo et al., 2014). In accordance with this view, Zacher (2014a) suggests that improving career adaptability should have positive effects on individuals' career satisfaction and performance.

Savickas (2006, 2013) suggest vocational guidance, career education and career counselling as important interventions for developing the career adaptability skills of concern, control, curiosity and confidence. For instance, workplace-based career development interventions should consider problem-based learning activities, which have been shown to stimulate critical thinking and problem-solving skills (Coetzee et al., 2015). Likewise, being curious and exploring the environment such as meeting new people and widening one's professional network in order to secure desired work – demonstrate the overall efficacy of how motivation toward a desired future and career adaptive processes relates to engagement behaviours necessary for career management (Taber & Blankemeyer, 2015).

Career management strategies that involve taking responsibility for career decision-making and goal implementation, gathering occupational information and being confident about one's capacity to implement career goals and solve problems were positively associated with high levels of career adaptability (Coetzee et al., 2015). Aligned with the theory of career construction, results of a study by Coetzee and Harry (2015) proposes that adaptive readiness of individuals enhances their willingness to develop vital career capacities in the form of career adapt-abilities of control, concern, curiosity and confidence. In particular, learning through challenging work and engaging with formal education and training provision can help individuals develop control (increasing influence on their career situations), concern (a positive and optimistic attitude to the future), curiosity (in broadening horizons by exploring a wider range of opportunities and possibilities), and confidence (in terms of self-belief) (Brown et al, 2012).

Tolentino et al. (2014) suggest that career adaptability resources can also be strengthened through the provision of career interventions, such as time perspective workshops that nurture future orientation and planfulness (career concern), information-seeking activities (career curiosity), building of self-esteem (career confidence), and decision-making training (career control). Likewise, reinforcing positive attitudes toward planning and teaching as well as

providing practice in planning and goal-setting skills are interventions that can increase career adaptability skills (Barto, Lambert, & Brott, 2015). Interventions such as activities designed to help learn more about the self (e.g. clarifying values, reflecting on past exploration, assessing personal interests and abilities) and the world of work (e.g. job shadowing, volunteering, and reading about various careers) could help develop career adaptability skills required to deal with the changing work environment (Barto et al., 2015).

Central to the concept of career adaptability is the notion that the four career adapt-abilities are not stable and may change over time (Ohme & Zacher, 2015). Therefore, practitioners continuously need to implement interventions to strengthen the career adapt-abilities skills (i.e. career concern, control, curiosity and confidence) (Ohme & Zacher, 2015). Assertiveness training, time and self-management skills training and discussion groups could be used to develop career decision-making skills (Barto et al., 2015). In addition to the planfulness and confidence about achievement of future goals (career concern), career discussions around career goals and plans might further motivate career control (i.e. perceived sense of control over one's future and deliberate decisions and actions), career curiosity (exploration of options and possible roles) and career confidence (self-efficacy in undertaking the actions needed to accomplish career goals) (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015).

Coetzee and Stoltz (2015) found that addressing individuals' career concern is necessary to career adaptability and satisfaction. As such, employees' career concern capabilities could be developed by actively engaging them in career discussions that focus on career development planning, setting realistic career goals, and assisting the individual to plan and prepare for future career possibilities (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015). Essentially, career adaptability has become an important aspect of career development, since it enables proactive career behaviour and successful work adjustment (Coetzee & Harry, 2015).

Below, Table 3.3 illustrates the four dimensions which constitute career adaptability resources called adapt-abilities.

Table 3.3

The Career Adaptability Dimensions

Variables	Description	Instrument used to measure the construct
Concern	Becoming concerned about the occupational future.	Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012)
Control	Increasing control by trying to prepare for the vocational future	
Curiosity	Showing curiosity by exploring possible selves and future possibilities.	
Confidence	Strengthening the confidence to pursue one's ambitions.	

Source: Savickas and Porfeli (2012, p. 663)

Although career adaptability has emerged as a prominent concept, there is no consensus of what constitutes career adaptability or whether it should be viewed as a competence, resource, disposition or personal readiness (Hirschi, 2012). Moreover, some of the constructs (e.g. employability and career self-management) seem to share commonalities with career adaptability but they have not been related sufficiently to each other (Hirsch, 2012; Kossek, Roberts, Fisher, Demarr, 1998; Thijssen, Van der Heijden, & Rocco, 2008). Since adaptabilities resources develop through interaction between the inner and outer worlds of a person, countries vary in the degree to which they nurture the formation of career adaptability and how they provide opportunities to develop and express these resources (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). For example, being adaptable may be considered less important or attractive for employers in non-Western cultures who do not emphasise individualism to a similar degree (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Likewise, being adaptable may be less important for finding high-quality employment in a more stable economy where employees have the luxury to choose between jobs (Koen et al., 2012).

In summary, the idea that career adaptability may lead to better employment quality remains important, given that developing career adaptability skills may improve the match between career self-concept and the occupational environment (Koen et al., 2012). In response to the multiple roles of professional women, adapt-ability skills, and therefore career adaptability could enable women to cope with vocational development tasks, and manage challenges associated with occupational transitions in a changing work environment (Savickas, 2006; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

Next, psychosocial career preoccupations construct are discussed.

3.1.3 Psychosocial career preoccupations

In this section, psychosocial career preoccupations are conceptualised and the theoretical models are discussed. The section concludes with a discussion of the variables influencing psychosocial career preoccupations and the implications for career satisfaction.

3.1.3.1 *Conceptualisation*

The concept of preoccupation is defined as a state in which an individual gives all or most of his or her attention to something (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2014). Super (1980, 1990) defines 'career' as the combination and sequence of various roles occupied by a person during the course of a lifetime. 'Career' is also seen as the implementation of a constellation of self-concepts, which evolve over time and emerge from a person's experiences in occupational roles (Greenhaus et al., 2010; Super, 1990). Self-concepts reflect beliefs that an individual holds about his or her personal attributes (Super, 1980; Taylor & Broffman, 2011). Combined, the concept of psychosocial career preoccupations becomes a mental state at a certain point of time during which an individual gives attention to specific vocational developmental activities and tasks relating to the implementation of the self-concept (Coetzee, 2014b; 2016; Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2014; Super, 1990). This state evolves over the course of a lifetime (Coetzee, 2014b; 2016). In this regard, psychosocial career preoccupations are viewed as the individuals' preoccupations with specific career-related concerns that influence their lives at a certain point in time (Coetzee, 2014b, 2016). Hence, Coetzee (2014) define psychosocial career preoccupations to be a mental state of having certain issues concerning one's career at the forefront of his or her mind at a particular point in time.

Concurrent with the rapidly changing world of work and given the unstable nature of work, research in careers are beginning to reconsider the established constructs of career development (Coetzee, 2016; McMahon et al., 2012). In this regard, career theory, research and practice are conceptually shifting away from career development to career self-management, employability, career motivation and adaptability concerns in an attempt to help workers manage their careers actively whilst adapting to the changing work environment (Coetzee, 2015; Hirschi, 2012). Contemporary preoccupations relate to psychosocial aspects of adaptation, adjustment and redefining the individual's identity or self as the individual prepares for, enters and participates in the work roles and subsequently deals with career transitions between occupational positions (Coetzee, 2015; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Individuals have preoccupations, which change at different stages in life and these preoccupations can be translated into interests that are channelled into work activities

(Coetzee, 2014b; Horna, 1985). Therefore, change and the concomitant transitions require adaptation, which translate into specific career concerns that preoccupy the individual's mind at a particular point in time during his or her career life (Coetzee, 2015).

In summary, for the purpose of the present study, 'psychosocial career preoccupations' referred to an individual's preoccupations with specific career-related concerns associated with life stage-related developmental tasks, which influences his or her career life at a certain point in time.

3.1.3.2 *Theoretical models*

The psychosocial career preoccupations construct is a developing construct which is under-researched in the South African workplace context. This section provides an overview of the theory which underpin psychosocial career preoccupations.

a) Super's developmental model

Super (1953) developed the theory of life/career stages and proposed four stages of adult career development: exploration (<25 years), establishment (25–44 years), maintenance (45–60 years), and (d) disengagement (61+ years). Each life/career stage is marked by distinguishing attitudes, motivations and behaviours that occur in sequence over the period of development (Byrne, Dik, & Chiaburu, 2008).

According to Schreuder and Coetzee (2011), life/career stages reflect distinctive psychological needs, life tasks and challenges that are influenced by social factors coinciding with a particular life/career stage, and which are significant in the work life of the individual. Life/career stages therefore, should not be seen as distinct entities with clear-cut time, psychological or social boundaries, but rather as developmental factors that are characteristic of certain stages of life with the associated psychological preoccupations or concerns related to vocational development tasks (Coetzee, 2014b; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011).

Super's (1953) career stage model is a useful framework for understanding women's psychosocial career preoccupations (Smart, 1998). According to Arthur, Hall, and Lawrence (1996), the exploration developmental stage of women appears psychologically oriented, narrowly focusing on the individual and gender-specific ways in which women see and make sense of the world. Although the career stage model is linear and age-specific, women rather see themselves interacting between career development and family responsibilities (Mainiero

& Sullivan, 2005). In addition, the career development of women tends to differ from that of men due to multiple roles and child care interruptions (Evers & Sieverding, 2013). These career interruptions and transitions the women encounter may cause them to experience revitalised growth and exploration stages in their 40 and 50s after their children have left home (Arthur et al., 1996). Takeda (2010) argues that, at each life stage throughout a woman's life-span, she is expected to have certain socio-cultural qualities (such as interest in others, attentiveness, cooperation and gentleness), and these issues, which relate to multiple social roles, affect the degree of satisfaction and freedom to make major career decisions.

Super (1990) proposes a life-span developmental model, which centres on self-concept. Super's (1990) life-span developmental theory proposes that choosing a career and managing one's development is a continuous process that lasts an individual's working life (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). Schreuder and Coetzee (2011) emphasise the fact that career development comprises the formation and implementation of self-concepts in occupational contexts. Self-concepts generally help to answer the question, 'Who I am?' thereby outlining the social group of which the individual is a member (Omair, 2010). Kerfoot and Knights (1998) contend that identity is always inevitably social and subsequently a product of complex social interactions where attitudes of approval and disapproval, support and criticism, confirmation and disconfirmation are essential to the formation and development of identity.

According to Super (1990), self-concept develops as a result of one's experiences. It changes over time and, ultimately, the selection of an occupation is an enactment of one's self-concept (Super, 1990). There are three main constructs in Super's life-span theory (1990) that can be applied to women's career development experiences: self-concept, life roles and the suggestion that people recycle through the life career developmental stages of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement (Coogan & Chen, 2007). Hence, self-concept has two components: personal factors (physical, intellectual traits, needs, values and interests) and social factors (community, school, family or friends), which interact to develop specific roles about the self (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). Super (1990) confirms that these roles include those of child, student, leisurite, worker, spouse, homemaker, parent, pensioner, citizen and family member positions that are occupied at some point by most people, all with associated expectations.

Fitzgerald and Weitzman (1992) argue that traditional socialisation processes do not seem to prepare women for the complex nature of choices they will make or the life roles they may fulfil. Super (1990) further points out that playing a number of roles simultaneously, especially during the same life stage may result in role conflict or commitment to one role making it difficult to do

justice to another (for example worker and caring mother). According to Super (1990), although people play several roles simultaneously in a life stage, this could mean that occupation, family or community roles may have an influence on each other (for example, success in one role bought at too high a price may cause failure in another). Thus, women may find that their careers develop in directions, advancement patterns and forms that are distinctly different from those of men (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005).

Super (1990) formulated a theory which was seen as a process over five life stages from childhood to old age. Each of these stages required the accomplishment of developmental tasks at different stages prior to successful completion of each stage (Patton, 2013). Table 3.4 provides an outline of these life stages.

Table 3.4

Super's Vocational Development Stages

Stage	Age	Developmental characteristics
Growth	Birth to age \pm 12-14	Children develop concepts of themselves through contact with adults who become their role models. Through exploration and experiences in the world, pleasant experiences lead to the development of interests, self-esteem, autonomy and future perspective which provide the capacity for forward planning.
Exploratory	Adolescence, age \pm 14-25	Tentative career choices are made which may be explored as part-time or job shadowing. These choices can then be explored in more depth as a chosen field. The individual may pursue a career due to inspiration or influence from parents or other adults, which could lead to a career crisis especially when the individual cannot cope with changes because he or she may be used to viewing a career as an occupation rather than as differing roles.
Establishment	Early adulthood, age \pm 25-45	Establishment broadly involves a period of trial in the late twenties leading to stabilisation in the thirties to early forties. There can be some job changes before a final choice is made. During this period security and advancement become priorities. Failure to stabilise could lead to stagnation or change of career.
Maintenance	Middle adulthood, age \pm 45-65	There is generally continuation along established lines in one's work. Some who have not achieved as intended, may stagnate in the status quo and avoid actively acquiring new knowledge and skills. Some focus on further goals, such as continuing education, while others become pioneers of change akin to the establishment stage.

Stage	Age	Developmental characteristics
Decline	Old age from \pm 65	During this period, there can be deceleration from work activities, such as seeking less responsibility or changing work roles. Depending on physical and/or mental powers and occupation there is progression towards disengagement from work roles.

Source: Adapted from Schreuder and Coetzee (2011)

According to Schreuder and Coetzee (2011), it is important that the distinguished life stages do not develop uniformly, although they occur at the approximate indicated ages. Furthermore, the ages at which they start and end are flexible and transition to a particular stage may include characteristics of another stage. For example, exploration which is generally associated with adolescence could manifest in adult stages in the form of exploring career change and new opportunities or exploration of new roles in retirement (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011; Super, 1990). Nonetheless, Ornstein and Isabella (1990) argue that specific issues and concerns within the stages of exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline may not be appropriate or representative of the psychological experiences of females in career development. Similarly, with notions that women construct their world view and interactions differently from men, women may have a different set of psychological concerns around each career stage from men (Ornstein & Isabella, 1990).

Although Super's (1990) developmental stage model has been used frequently as a theoretical base for studies, research on the stages themselves is sparse (Stead & Watson, 2006). More recently, theoretical suggestions have emerged that clearly reflect the influence of the constructivist worldview with emphasis on the individual as central to the construction of his or her life and career (Patton & McMahon, 2014). Such theoretical proposals include the career construction theory (Savickas, 2005; 2013) and the ecological theory (Cook et al., 2002), which have generated a number of viewpoints to enhance our understanding of careers (Patton & McMahon, 2014).

In summary, Super (1990) formulated a theory which was seen as a process over five life stages with developmental characteristics. Each of these stages required the accomplishment of developmental tasks at different stages prior to successful completion of each stage. Drawing from Super's life stage theory (1953; 1990), Coetzee (2014b; 2016) developed a psychosocial career preoccupations model, which is discussed in the next section.

b) Coetzee's psychosocial career preoccupations model

Super's (1990) life stage approach has not been satisfactory to understand women's work behaviour or career development as it was based on male career planning uninterrupted by marriage and childrearing (Patton, 2013). For instance, Mainiero and Sullivan (2005; 2006) indicate that the woman's context shapes her career choices to fit her, as marked by the distinct and changing personal patterns over her lifespan. According to Mainiero and Sullivan (2006), women are preoccupied with specific parameters or needs over time. In early career, they are concerned with career challenges (stimulation, learning, growth and exciting work); in mid-career, a need for balance (bringing factors such as family, work and children into a state of equilibrium) takes priority; and in late career, a concern for authenticity (being genuine and true to oneself) grows in intensity (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006).

Other psychosocial career preoccupations that may also be predominant in women's careers (Coetzee, 2016; Hall, 2013; Savickas, 2013; Sullivan, 2013) could include:

- concern about employability;
- continuous learning, training and development;
- career agency and independence;
- achieving work–life balance and flexibility;
- adaptability for frequent transitions;
- coping with unexpected changes; and
- developing closer relationships with members of one's work and social community

Grounded in Super's life stage theory (1957; 1990), Savickas (2005; 2013) views adult developmental tasks of adaptability around a period of exploration (14 to 25 years), establishment (25 to 45 years), maintenance (45 to 65 years) and disengagement (around the age of 65 years). During the process of intra-individual growth or change and environmental adaptation, individuals are likely to become preoccupied with particular issues relating to the psychosocial aspects of their careers (Coetzee, 2016). These career-related issues may relate to psychological (career self-concept) and social (career–social situations or roles interface) concerns which occupy the forefront of people's minds and are predominant life or career themes in the career–life story at a specific point in time (Coetzee, 2016; Savickas, 2002; Sharf, 2014).

The career construction theory (Savickas, 2006) suggests that vocational development is an ongoing process for improving the match between the self and circumstance through active engagement in the psychosocial developmental activities of adaptability (Coetzee, 2016; Savickas, 2005; 2013). Therefore, individuals' career and/or life themes indicate predominant preoccupations generally relating to each of the developmental tasks of career adaptability (Coetzee, 2016; Savickas, 2013). Table 3.5 shows an outline of the preoccupations relating to the career stages and developmental tasks of adaptability.

Table 3.5

Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Stages and Dominant Life Themes

Career stage preoccupations	Dominant life themes
Exploration preoccupations	Clarification of what individuals want to do, learning about entry-level jobs and the required skills, may choose to work part-time or give preference to engage in specialised field of education.
Establishment preoccupations	Concerns about advancing in one's career, settling down and becoming comfortable in a job, being able to meet the job requirements, and there is a concern whether the individual has the necessary skills to function in the job for the long-term.
Management preoccupations	Concerns of holding onto one's job while at the same time updating, learning or developing new skills as required by the job, improving performance, and dealing with new technological innovations.
Disengagement preoccupations	Concerns about losing one's job due to physical limitations or health incapacity, slowing down one's work responsibility or working part-time, and ultimately dealing with retirement.

Source: Adapted from Coetzee (2016) and Sharf (2014)

The vocational developmental tasks as fostered within each career stage (exploration, establishment, management and disengagement) provide guidance in terms of how to reestablish stability, and maintain continuity in a complex unfamiliar and uncertain social context (Coetzee, 2016; Savickas, 2005). Savickas (2005, 2013) views these constructive developmental activities as small cycles that are periodically repeated around new transitions in an individual's life trajectory. The developmental tasks are therefore not necessarily restricted to these age frameworks simply because not all individuals undergo these tasks at the same age, and nor do all individuals experience all tasks (Coetzee, 2016; Sharf, 2014).

Drawing from Super's life stage theory (1957, 1990) as expounded by Sharf (2010) and Savickas (2005, 2013) contemporary career construction theory of developmental career tasks

of adaptability, Coetzee (2016) proposes three core dimensions of psychosocial career preoccupations (see Figure 3.5) that are considered non-age- and non-career stage related:

- *Career establishment preoccupations* encompass concerns about assimilating in a group, career, economic stability and security, to establish opportunities for self-expression, personal growth and development, and advancement in one's career in the current organisation.
- *Career adaptation preoccupations* encompass employability-related concerns about becoming accustomed to changing contexts which might include career changes and adjusting one's interests, talents and capabilities to fit in with opportunities in the employment market.
- *Work/life adjustment preoccupations* encompass concerns about settling down, reducing one's workload and achieving harmony between one's work and personal life, which might also include complete withdrawal from paid employment.

Research on these three dimensions of psychosocial career preoccupations in the South African workplace context is limited, and especially in relation to career success outcomes such as the professional women's career satisfaction.

Below, Figure 3.5 illustrates the core dimensions of psychosocial career preoccupations.

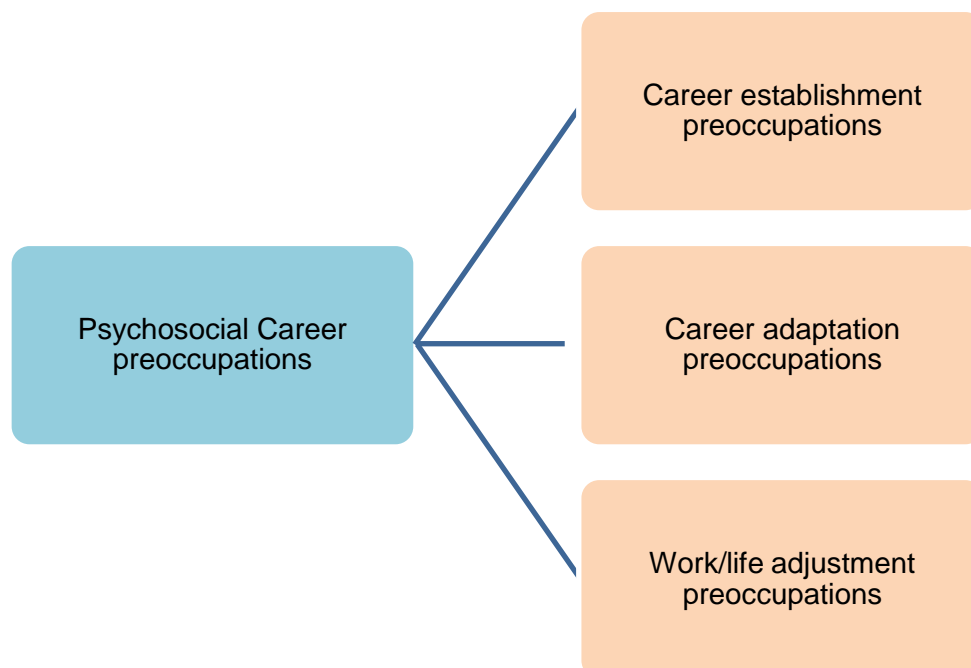


Figure 3.5: Core dimensions of psychosocial career preoccupations (Coetzee, 2015, p. 34)

Findings by Coetzee (2016) are as follows:

- Lack of significant differences was observed between psychosocial career preoccupations of the three career stage-related age groups as suggested by Savickas (2005, 2013) and Super (1957, 1990), suggesting that psychosocial career preoccupations are not age related as proposed by Coetzee (2014b).
- Career establishment preoccupations were predominant for participants who were younger than 25 years (exploration stage), 25-45 years (establishment stage) and 45-65 years (management stage).
- Findings seemed to support Savickas (2005, 2013) and Super's (1957, 1990) proposition of career recycling through minicycles within or across the maxicycle of career stages.
- Participants between 25-45 years had a relatively similar pattern of concerns relating to the vocational developmental tasks of career establishment, career adaptation and work-life adjustment, suggesting that this age group could be potential recyclers.
- The predominant preoccupations with vocational developmental tasks relating to career establishment identified for participants in the 45-65 years career stage of maintenance also suggest that this age group was potentially engaged in career recycling.
- Findings extend research on contemporary careers, further supporting theoretical accounts that emphasise career adaptability and employability as important contemporary vocational developmental tasks, which may influence individuals' work-related attitudes.

Coetzee (2015) validated that employability-related concerns about adapting to changing contexts and new opportunities in the employment market (career adaptation preoccupations) are likely to be significantly associated with individuals' increased attachment to interests external to the current organisational job and career.

Overall, findings by Coetzee (2016) indicate that work-life adjustment preoccupations (concerns about settling down, reducing one's workload and achieving harmony between one's work and personal life or retiring) were instrumental in explaining the proactive behaviours related to ingenuity and openness to change.

Table 3.6 depicts the dimensions and the instrument used to measure psychosocial career preoccupations.

Table 3.6

The Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Dimensions

Variables	Description	Instrument used to measure the construct
Career establishment preoccupations	Concerns about assimilating in a group, establishing opportunities for self-expression and advancing in one's career	Psychosocial career preoccupations scale (Coetzee, 2015)
Career adaptation preoccupations	Employability-related concerns about adapting to changing contexts which might involve career changes and adjusting one's interests, talents and capabilities to fit in with opportunities in the employment market	
Work/life adjustment preoccupations	Concerns about settling down, reducing one's workload and achieving harmony between one's work and personal life, which might also involve withdrawing from paid employment altogether	

Source: Coetzee (2015, p. 34)

In summary, drawing from the life stage theory and the contemporary career construction theory of developmental career, tasks of adaptability and psychosocial career preoccupations are viewed as the individual's willingness to adapt and change in order to satisfy psychological needs and achieve balance or congruence between the self and the environment.

3.1.3.3 Variables influencing psychosocial career preoccupations

Some variables have been identified as precursors of psychosocial career preoccupations. The key variables of importance in this study include career stages, age and education.

i. Career stages

In a study on work attitudes of male and female accounting professionals, Lynn, Cao, and Horn (1996) found the overall sample to differ significantly across career stages in ratings of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards satisfaction. More specifically, individuals in the maintenance stage had significantly higher ratings of intrinsic rewards satisfaction than did individuals in the establishment and advancement stages. In contrast, individuals in the advancement and maintenance stages had significantly higher ratings of extrinsic rewards satisfaction than individuals in the establishment stages.

An empirical study on career stages in professional women by Smart (1998) found that satisfaction with pay and job involvement was lowest in the exploration stage. Women in the establishment stage were significantly more satisfied with pay and less willing to relocate for promotion compared to women in the exploration stage, while women in the maintenance stage were more committed to their profession and more involved in their careers than women in the establishment and exploration stages.

Ismail, Rasdi, and Wahat (2005) found that high-flyer women academics passed through specific and predictable career developmental life stages and were promoted to the level of professor during the establishment and maintenance stages.

Findings by O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) suggest:

- Women in the early career (ages 24–35) will most likely base their career choices on their desires or concerns about career satisfaction, will doubtless be proactive in taking strategic steps to ensure career progress, are achievement-oriented and motivated to succeed, and see their careers as opportunities to make a difference and as paths to personal happiness and fulfilment.
- The driving force in mid-career (age 36–45) is pragmatic endurance. Accordingly, women are pragmatic about their careers and are operating in production mode, doing what it takes to get the work done. Their careers are reflective of both ordered and emergent tendencies, have a high relational context, and they manage multiple responsibilities, both personally and professionally. They see their careers as extensions of themselves and their identities are inextricably linked with what they do for a living, making it essential to achieve career success. Women in this career stage define success as personal happiness and fulfilment. Lack of support from organisations and discriminatory practices may likely divert women's energies and talents from their careers to other areas of their lives, which provide a sense of satisfaction, self-worth, achievement and recognition.
- The driving force in the advanced career stage (ages 46–60) is re-inventive contribution with a focus on contributing to their organisations, families and communities. These women have experienced personal lives being subsumed by their professional lives at some point in their careers. They have advanced in their careers, reconceptualised and reclaimed their careers in their lives as opportunities to contribute to and be of service to others without losing sight of themselves. Careers are seen as learning opportunities

and chances to make a difference to others. Success is about recognition, respect and living integrated lives (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005).

ii. Age

In a study of managers at different ages, older managers appeared less inclined to define career success in terms of hierarchical and financial progression but gave emphasis to career success as personal achievement, accomplishment, recognition and influence than younger managers (Sturges, 1999).

Likewise, Sturges (1999) suggests that both men and women in their forties in management positions appeared to place emphasise on enjoying their work or finding it interesting more than the younger managers did. Particularly for women, findings of O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) are reflective of the confluence of pressing career and personal concerns likely to occur during the transitional mid-life period between the ages 40 and 45.

iii. Education level

In a study of graduates, Coetzee (2017) found that graduates were concerned about employability, adapting to changing contexts and adjusting the fit between their career needs and/or preferences and changing environment requirements (i.e. career adaptation preoccupations).

In summary, psychosocial career preoccupations were conceptualised and the theoretical models discussed, including the extent to which psychosocial career preoccupations contribute to career satisfaction. Career stages, gender, age and education level variables were found to influence psychosocial career preoccupations.

3.1.4.4 *Implications for career development practices*

According to O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005), a trend across career phases reflects a focus on self and on others, and finally a balance between others and self. A study of academic women physicians by Kalet, Fletcher, Ferdman and Bickell (2006) found that career satisfaction involves achieving professional and personal balance. O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) suggest the following:

- Organisations need to match resources to women's changing needs better to allow them to continue contributing meaningfully during each phase of their careers.
- Legitimise various career paths and options and provide a climate of acceptance and support for the many responsibilities women have including the many choices they face.
- Work with individuals to identify the necessary resources that would allow them to perform their best at work, provide opportunities to continue to learn and to develop skills and abilities, and to feel challenged in their work.
- Particularly in the earlier career phase, it is critical for women to have access to successful female role models and to see concrete evidence that organisations are supportive of their desires for career and life success.
- Create fair and just organisational policies that contribute to quality of work environments for all employees.
- Organisational compensation programmes must consider both intangible and tangible means of reward in keeping with women's desires to be positive contributors as well as to be financially successful.

According to Coetzee (2015), employers need to take cognisance of how the changing career environment influences employees' needs and concerns and how these affect their commitment to their current jobs and careers. Those involved in education, training and development need to understand how fundamental it is that people at all stages of their career progression are ready to continue their development in increasingly demanding environments (Brown et al., 2012). In addition to this view, organisational career management practices need to focus on providing support for career establishment needs as well as employees' needs for sustaining their employment and career growth (Coetzee, 2015). Therefore, organisational career support in addressing these concerns may assist in enhancing women's career commitment and performance, because organisations that do not address the career adaptation, career renewal and employability concerns of women may potentially face challenges in retaining them (Coetzee, 2015).

Although the developing construct of psychosocial career preoccupations is promising to contribute to understanding women's work behaviour and career development, short comings of this construct should be considered (Coetzee, 2016).

First, three dimensions of psychosocial career preoccupations (see Table 3.6) and the dominant life themes seem to show similarities with the framework of Savickas' (2005, 2013) developmental tasks of career adaptability. It appears, the career establishment preoccupations share commonalities with the developmental tasks of adaptability relating to the exploration career stage (coping with entering a new workplace or job) and the establishment career stage (fitting in and advancing within the job or the organisation and feeling a sense of stability on the job) (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Super, 1990).

Second, career adaptation preoccupations seem to share the developmental tasks of career adaptability in relation to the career maintenance stage (maintaining the self-concept in the process of noting changes in the workplace, learning more about new requirements of the job or the organisation and reassessing the need for career satisfaction and family issues) (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Super, 1990).

Third, psychosocial career preoccupations of work-life adjustment concerns share the developmental tasks of career adaptability in relation to the maintenance career stage (reassessing the self with family needs) and disengagement career stage (forging a new life structure outside the occupation and workplace or slowing down one's work to fulfil family responsibilities) (Coetzee, 2016; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Super, 1990). Finally, there is limited research presented on the groundwork of psychosocial career preoccupations as proposed by Coetzee (2016).

In summary, employees' psychosocial career preoccupations may potentially be a consequence of specific work-related needs (e.g. career satisfaction) within a specific socio-cultural work context (Coetzee, 2016). Psychosocial needs for stability and/or security and skills development (career establishment preoccupations) relate to basic human needs which, if satisfied, influence individuals' perceptions of the quality of employment offered by an organisation (Coetzee, 2016; Holman, 2013). Further, psychosocial career preoccupations predispose individuals to adaptive behaviours that may bring about change to themselves and the environment at large, as well satisfy inherent psychological needs (e.g. competence, relatedness and autonomy), thus enabling individuals to function optimally and develop to their full potential (Coetzee, 2015; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). The present study explored the extent to which the construct 'psychosocial career preoccupations' is predictive of career satisfaction in a sample of professional women. It was hypothesised that psychosocial career preoccupations would be positively predictive of career satisfaction.

Next, the self-efficacy construct is discussed.

3.1.4 Self-efficacy

In this section, self-efficacy is conceptualised and the theoretical models are discussed. The section concludes with a discussion of the variables influencing self-efficacy and the implications for career satisfaction.

3.1.4.1 *Conceptualisation*

Self-efficacy is a term derived from social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001a), which posits a triadic reciprocal causation in which internal personal factors (in the form of cognitive, affective, and biological events), behavioural patterns, and environmental influences all operate as interacting determinants that influence one another bi-directionally (Bandura, 1986, 2001a). Literature shows that self-efficacy has been studied across numerous spheres of human functioning (Bandura, 1995; Behjat & Chowdhury, 2012; Betz, 2004; Hackett & Betz, 1981; Jin, Watkins, & Yuen, 2009; Michaelides, 2008; Scott & Mallinckrodt, 2005; Spurk & Abele, 2014; Zeldin, Britner, & Pajares, 2008). In 1977, Bandura (1977) coined the construct self-efficacy also known as the 'social cognitive theory' to explain individual beliefs and human functioning.

Bandura (1995) defines self-efficacy as the beliefs in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action as required to manage potential situations. More simply, self-efficacy relates to an individual's belief about his or her ability to engage in a specific task and to be able to complete it (Michaelides, 2008). According to Onyishi and Ogbodo (2012), self-efficacy is the belief that individuals are able to perform the actions necessary to manage difficult or new tasks and to be able to cope with the difficulties associated with demanding circumstances. Betz and Hackett (1997) suggest that self-efficacy refers to an individual's beliefs concerning career-related behaviours, work-related choices, performance and persistence in the implementation of those choices.

Bandura (2000) contends that efficacy beliefs influence how individuals think, feel, motivate themselves and act towards fulfilment of goals and aspirations. Further, King (2004) argues that individuals' self-efficacy and their desire for control over career outcomes would enable them to demonstrate career self-management behaviours, which in turn, may lead to attainment of desired career outcomes and satisfaction with careers. Consequently, individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs set higher career goals, put in extra effort, and pursue career strategies that lead to the attainment of those goals than individuals low in self-efficacy (Ballout, 2009).

According to Gist and Mitchell (1992), three aspects are highlighted in the self-efficacy definition:

- Self-efficacy is an inclusive summary or judgment of perceived competence for performing a specific task.
- Self-efficacy is dynamic in that efficacy judgment changes over time when new information and experiences are acquired, such as during actual task performance.
- Efficacy beliefs involve a mobilisation component, and reflect a generative process that involves the construction and orchestration of adaptive performance in changing situations. Therefore, individuals with similar skills may perform differently in relation to a specific task, assessment of competence and adapt their performance in changing situations (Bandura & Wood, 1989; Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

Conceptual differentiation between self-efficacy and similar constructs is important for further theoretical understanding of self-efficacy (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). According to Gist and Mitchell (1992), one of two constructs most often confused with self-efficacy is self-esteem, even though there are key differences between the two. Firstly, self-esteem is a stable trait-like variable that reflects a person's qualities, whereas self-efficacy is a dynamic construct that changes over time as new information and task experience are attained (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Secondly, self-esteem is often portrayed as a global construct that represents the evaluative aspect of the self-concept, which corresponds to a general view of the self as worthy or unworthy (Heatherton & Wyland, 2003; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Equally, 'self-concept' refers to the totality of cognitive beliefs people have about themselves, and to everything known about the self, which includes things such as the name, race, likes, dislikes, beliefs, values and appearance descriptions (Heatherton & Wyland, 2003).

Finally, self-esteem is based on a reflective evaluation of the self, such as feelings of self-worth that are mostly resultant from perceptions about several personal characteristics (e.g. integrity or intelligence) (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). By contrast, some people may have high self-efficacy for some tasks such as technically based problem solving, yet have very low self-efficacy about other tasks (e.g. writing technical reports), but neither of these leads to an increase or decrease in their general self-esteem (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Therefore, self-efficacy always refers to task-specific capability, since:

- It is a belief in capacity to execute behaviors deemed essential to achieve specific performance outcomes.
- It reflects confidence in the ability to exert control over one's own motivation, behaviour or social environment.
- It influences the choice of activity, task perseverance, level of effort expended, and eventually the degree of success achieved (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Wong, Lau, & Lee, 2012).

Another construct often viewed as similar to self-efficacy is the expectancy construct, based on the expectancy motivation theory (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). According to Stajkovic and Luthans (1998), the expectancy motivational model contains both the effort–performance component also referred to as E1 and the behaviour–outcome expectancies component called E2 (e.g. performance rewards), which are not the same as self-efficacy. Although E1 is considered to be more similar to self-efficacy based on expected successful performance outcomes, self-efficacy beliefs encompass much more than would be associated with the employee's E1 perception of the relationship between the degree of effort extended and level of performance (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

Specifically, self-efficacy appraisals are grounded in a superior domain of perceptions such as skills, knowledge, ability, previous task experience and complexity of the performed task as well as on the conditions of affective and psychomotor reactions, for example, positive or negative emotions, fatigue and stress (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Although both constructs (i.e., E1 and self-efficacy) involve forethought, self-efficacy is viewed as having generative capability (generalising to other related functional areas) such as when a salesperson's feelings of self-efficacy in selling generalise to include servicing customers, whereas E1 does not contain this capability (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). E2 (the behavior–outcome expectancy) differs from self-efficacy more evidently on the ordering of the motivational model's continuum (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Bandura (1977) distinguishes self-efficacy from E2 by suggesting that efficacy expectations are differentiated, because individuals can believe that particular modes of action will produce certain behavioural outcomes (e.g., a belief that one could successfully complete a task), whereas E2 refers to a person's assessment that a given behaviour will result in certain outcomes (e.g., a belief that certain actions may or may not result in a desired outcome). Therefore, the person's assessment of self-efficacy will generally come first before any behaviour outcome expectations (E2) are even considered (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

According to Ivancevich, Konopaske, and Matteson (2011), self-efficacy beliefs are learned and their development are based on past experiences. Hence, when an individual attempts a task over a period of time and increasingly performs successfully, he or she is likely to develop self-confidence and increase a belief in the capacity to perform the task successfully (Ivancevich et al., 2011). A study by Hackett and Betz (1981) suggest that as a result of socialisation experiences, women lack strong expectations of personal efficacy towards various career-related behaviours and, therefore fail to realise their capabilities and talents in career pursuits fully. Furthermore, Zeldin et al. (2008) propose that self-efficacy beliefs of men in male-dominated fields such as mathematics, science and technology careers are generated mainly as a result of interpretations they make of their ongoing achievements and successes. Conversely, Zeldin et al. (2008) suggest that women depend on relational experiences in their lives to create and reinforce the confidence that they can succeed in male-dominated fields.

According to Bandura (1995), individuals with a strong sense of self-efficacy foster positive psychological well-being, they set high goals and maintain strong commitment, motivation, and ultimately perseverance contributes to goal accomplishment. In addition, people with high levels of self-efficacy are motivated to engage in behaviours that help improve their learning and they are further likely to use that learning to perform better in the workplace and in due course reach higher levels of job performance in organisations (Lunenburg, 2011). Furthermore, individuals with high levels of self-efficacy convey confidence in difficult situations, and approach difficult tasks as challenges to be conquered rather than as threats to be avoided (Behjat & Chowdhury, 2012; Dogan, Totan, & Sapmaz, 2013). A study by Ballout (2009) found that career commitment predicted both objective (i.e. salary level) and subjective (i.e. career satisfaction) career success only for employees with average to high self-efficacy but not for those with low self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is an important motivational construct which influences individual choices, goals, emotional reactions, coping, effort and persistence (Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

In summary, the present study adopted the self-efficacy theory by Bandura (1997, 2004) as depicted in Figures 3.6 and 3.7. In addition, for the purpose of this study, self-efficacy was defined as an individual's belief about his or her ability to engage in a specific task and be able to complete it (Michaelides, 2008).

3.1.4.2 Theoretical models

This section provides an overview of theories that underpin self-efficacy.

a) *Social cognitive theory*

Social cognitive theory (SCT) offers not only knowledge for predicting behaviour but, it is also a theory of learning and change (Bandura, 2012). According to Bandura (2012), the theory specifies the approaches and mechanisms of learning as they function through attentional, representational, translational and motivational processes. The learning part of the theory, which is a key aspect of the change model, stipulates how individuals acquire knowledge clusters; cognitive, social and emotional tendencies; and behavioural competencies (Bandura, 1986, 1997, 2012). For that reason, the body of knowledge for effecting personal and social change is one of the trademarks of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2012).

The SCT (Bandura, 1986, 2001a) holds that career development is a combination of personal, contextual and cognitive factors that have an influence on career-interest formation, goal development, and performance (Constatine et al., 2005; Lent et al., 1994). This theory emphasises self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations and career goals or intentions as three social cognitive processes that are believed to operate with regard to career behaviours (Bandura, 2012; Constatine et al., 2005). According to Bandura (2012), self-efficacy is a central factor since it affects behaviour both directly and by its influence on the other factors. In its exploration of the personal determinants in the triadic causal system, social cognitive theory highlights a range of cognitive, vicarious, self-regulatory and self-reflective processes (Bandura, 1986; Lent et al., 1994). People do not function as autonomous agents, nor is their behaviour entirely determined by situational influences, but rather human functioning is a product of a reciprocal interplay of intrapersonal, behavioural, and environmental factors as illustrated in Figure 3.6.

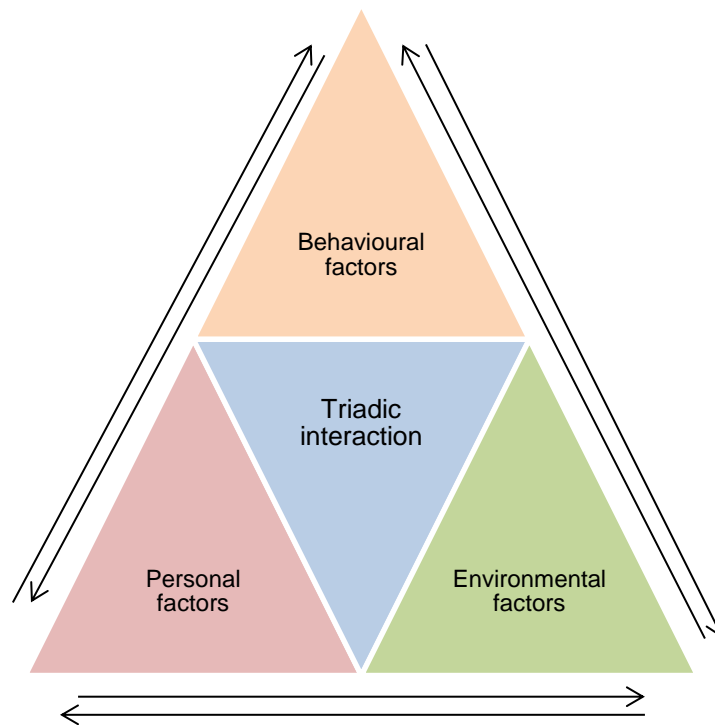


Figure 3.6: The triadic reciprocal determinism model (Adapted from Bandura (2012, p. 12)

Trait-oriented career development models tend to emphasise relatively global, static self attributes, and as such, these models may not adequately capture the dynamic interaction that occurs between developing individuals and their changing situations, nor may they fully take into account the change and malleability of human functioning (Lent et al., 1994; Vondracek, Lerner, & Schulenberg, 1986). By contrast, social cognitive theory gives emphasis to the situation and the domain-specific nature of behaviour, the relatively dynamic facets of the self-system, and how individuals exercise human agency (Bandura, 2001a; Lent et al., 1994). The social cognitive theory explains psychosocial functioning in relation to triadic reciprocal causation (Bandura, 1986). According to Bandura (2001a), in this model of reciprocal causality, internal personal aspects in the form of emotional, biological and cognitive events, behavioural patterns, and environmental events altogether operate as interacting sources that influence one another bi-directionally. However, Bandura (2008) asserts that the triadic interaction takes into account the exercising of personal influence in shaping one's destinies.

Drawing from social learning, social cognitive theory attempts to explain organisational behaviour in relation to the reciprocal causation among individual employees (distinctive personality characteristics, such as need for success), the behaviour itself (past successful or unsuccessful performances), and the environment (perceived consequences from the organisational environment, such as pay for performance) (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). The prospect and strength that unintended encounters will have on human lives are founded on the

reciprocal interplay of personal aspects and the characteristics of the social environments into which one is inaugurated (Bandura, 1982, 2001a). Therefore, in developing personal attributes that enable people to make the most of the available opportunities, gives them power to shape their own destinies (Bandura, 2001a).

The SCT is founded on an agentic perspective of human self-development, adaptation and change; thus, to be a responsive agent necessitates intentionally influencing one's functioning and environmental conditions (Bandura, 2004). In that view, the agentic capacity enables people to take control, both individually and collectively, in shaping the character of their lives and social system (Bandura, 2004).

The core features of human agency as identified by the social cognitive theory and illustrated in Figure 3.7 are discussed in the following section.

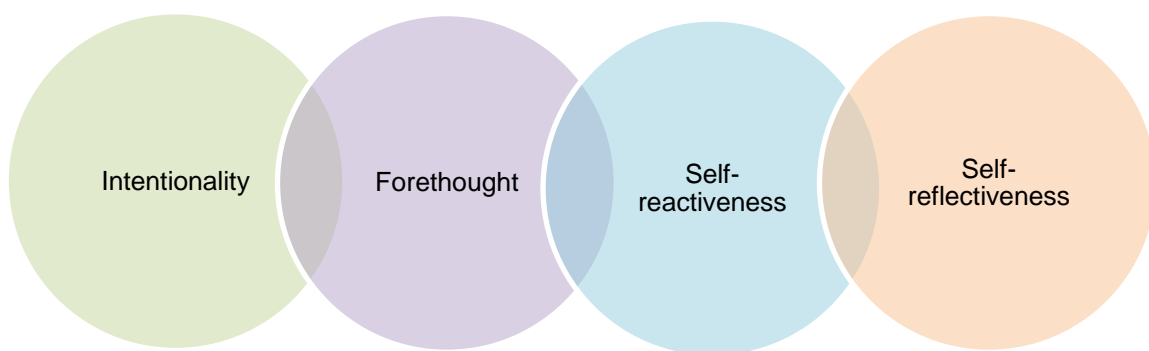


Figure 3.7: Core features of human agency (Adapted from Bandura, 2001a, pp. 6–10)

i. Intentionality

According to Bandura (2001a), agency refers to acts that are performed intentionally. An intention is a representation of a future course of action to be performed and is not simply an expectation or prediction of future actions but a proactive commitment to bring these about. People make intentions that include action plans and strategies for realising them (Bandura,

2004). Therefore, it is meaningful to speak of intentions grounded in self-motivators, which affect the likelihood of actions at a future stage (Bandura, 2001a).

ii. Forethought

Through forethought, people set themselves goals, and anticipate likely outcomes of prospective actions to guide and motivate their efforts (Bandura, 2004). Employees select or plan and create courses of action likely to produce desired outcomes, but avoid detrimental ones (Bandura, 2001a). Interestingly, the future acquires causal properties by being represented cognitively by forethought exercised in the present (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

iii. Self-reactiveness

Human agents are not only planners and fore-thinkers, but self-regulate ('I am going to do it') as well (Bandura, 1997, 2004). According to Bandura (1997), people adopt personal standards, monitor and regulate their actions by self-reactive influence. In addition, people do things that give them satisfaction, a sense of self-worth, and refrain from actions that bring self-censure (Bandura, 1997, 2004). Agency is therefore not only the deliberate ability to make choices and regulate actions, but also the ability to appropriately choose the courses of action, to motivate and monitor the action to completion (Bandura, 2001a). According to Bandura (2004), considered actions operate through self-regulatory processes that link thought to action. Furthermore, self-regulation influences choices made and courses of action requires, i.e. ability to set goals, determine a plan of action and persist when confronted with obstacles (Bandura, 1986; 2001a). Therefore, people do not have to conform to the likings or demands of others, but they self-control their actions through internal standards (e.g. an aspired level of performance) and evaluate the inconsistency between the standard and the performance in order to improve their course of actions (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

iv. Self-reflectiveness

Self-reflectiveness ('I know how'), afford a person to evaluate his or her motivation, values, and the meaning of his or her life purpose (Bandura, 1997, 2001a). According to Stajkovic and Luthans (1998), self-reflectiveness permits people to think and analyse their experiences and thought processes. Hence, people are not only agents of actions, but are also self-examiners of their own effectiveness (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). They reflect on their efficacy, the soundness of their thoughts and actions and the meaning of their purpose, and they make adjustments where necessary (Bandura, 2004). It is at this higher level of self-reflectiveness

that people address inconsistencies in motivational incentives and choose to act in favour of one over the other (Bandura, 2001). Consequently, employees reflect back on their actions and perceptually consider how strongly they can accomplish the task successfully in the future, given the situation (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

Efficacy beliefs occupy a key role in the causal structure of SCT and comprise the basis for human agency (Bandura, 1997, 2001a). According to Bandura (1997, 2001a), efficacy beliefs help to regulate how much effort people will spend on an action, the level of motivation and how long they are willing to persevere when confronted with obstacles (Bandura, 1997, 2001a). In addition, efficacy beliefs affect people's ability to adjust to changes, level of motivation, performance and thought patterns that may be self-aiding or self-hindering (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Therefore, efficacy beliefs largely have predictive capabilities and thus carry a number of important implications for effective management of employee performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Wood & Bandura, 1989).

v. Applicability of social cognitive theory

The SCT focuses on human adaptation, and the triadic reciprocal causation, i.e. behaviour, cognitive, and other personal factors and environmental events (Bandura, 2004; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Wood and Bandura (1989) and Bandura (2004), suggest the following:

- The development of people's cognitive, social, and behavioural competencies are three characteristics of the SCT that are relevant to the organisational management field.
- People are able to use their talents effectively through efficacy beliefs training, goal setting and mastery modeling (Bandura, 2012; Wood & Bandura, 1989).
- Developing individual's attributes that enable him or her to overcome unintended situations and resist unintended negative social and environmental circumstances in pursuing career goals (Bandura, 2001a).

In summary, the SCT offers solutions to overcoming individual performance difficulties in the social and organisational setting. The social theory addresses some of the aspects of an agentic socio-cognitive approach to human understanding and betterment, as well as provides some of the applications in the workplace (Bandura, 2004). Moreover, the theory offers an integrated approach to personality and emphasise the complexity of human development, adaptation, and change from an agentic perspective (Bandura, 1999, 2015).

The SCT (Bandura, 1986, 1989, 2001a) is applicable to the present study, since the model provides a comprehensive framework to understand the role of self-efficacy beliefs in the career development of women.

b) Self-efficacy theory

As noted above, self-efficacy is a major component of the SCT and is the foundation of human agency (Bandura, 2004). Perceived self-efficacy relate to people's beliefs about their capabilities to mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources, and course of action required to exercise control over life events (Wood & Bandura, 1989). According to Bandura (2004), unless people believe they can produce desired outcomes based on their actions, they have little incentive to act or to persevere when confronted with obstacles. Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) indicate that highly efficacious employees will activate sufficient effort and, if well executed, yield successful outcomes. Self-efficacy beliefs are dependent on cognitive processing of various sources of efficacy information (i.e. performance accomplishment, mastery experience, verbal persuasion and physiological state) and once formed contribute significantly to the level and quality of human functioning (Bandura, 1993, 2012). Hence, self-efficacy is linked to the perception of having the capabilities to produce efforts that are based on one's actions (Bonitz, Larson, & Armstrong, 2010).

In a study of municipal employees, Day and Allen (2004) found that self-efficacy related positively to salary, subjective career success and performance effectiveness. Similarly, Pachulicz et al. (2008) confirm that self-efficacy is positively related to career satisfaction, such that participating individuals high in this trait also reported increased subjective career success. In a study of employees in several Korean companies, Kim, Mone, and Kim (2008) reported that self-efficacy perceptions related negatively to overall pay satisfaction. However, in a study involving young workers, Lubbers, Loughlin and Zweig (2005) found no influence of self-efficacy on salary.

Self-efficacy beliefs define goals or aspirations and also determine how environmental enablers and obstacles are viewed (Bandura, 2004). According to Bandura (2004), people with low self-efficacy are easily convinced of the ineffectiveness of efforts when facing obstacles while those with high self-efficacy view obstacles as manageable through perseverant effort and improvement of self-management skills. Adio and Popoola (2010) depict a scenario where people with low self-efficacy tend to blame either the situation or other people when things go wrong, and remark that such people also experience a sense of helplessness and hopelessness about their capabilities to cope with the challenges and demands of work.

According to Lunenburg (2011), self-efficacy has positive effects on learning, motivation and performance. An extensive literature review on self-efficacy by Bandura and Locke (2003) concluded that self-efficacy is a powerful determinant of performance. Hence, people try to learn and perform only those tasks that they believe they will be able to perform successfully (Lunenburg, 2011). Self-efficacy affects learning and performance in three ways (Bandura, 1982; Lunenburg, 2011):

- Self-efficacy influences the the choice of goals that employees set. Research shows that people not only learn but also perform at levels commensurate with their self-efficacy beliefs (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Ballout, 2009; Spurk & Abele, 2014).
- Self-efficacy influences learning and on the effort people exercise on the job. Employees with high self-efficacy usually work hard to learn how to perform new tasks, since they are confident that their efforts will yield success. However, employees with low self-efficacy may exercise less effort in learning and performing complex tasks, since they are unsure that the effort will lead to success (Bandura, 1982; Lunenburg, 2011).
- Self-efficacy influences the persistence with which people try new and difficult tasks. Employees with high self-efficacy are confident that they can learn and perform a particular task. As a result, they are more likely to persist in their efforts even when problems surface. However, employees with low self-efficacy believe they are not capable of learning and performing a difficult task are likely to give up when problems surface (Bandura, 1982; Lunenburg, 2011).

i. The dynamics of self-efficacy

Self-efficacy expectations vary in terms of on three dimensions: magnitude, strength and generality (Bandura, 1977; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). These are shown in Figure 3.8 and Table 3.7 and are discussed as follows:

- Magnitude refers to level of task difficulty individuals believe they are capable of executing.
- Strength of efficacy expectations may vary to the extent that weak expectations can easily be extinguished by disconfirming experiences, while, individuals possessing strong expectations of mastery will persevere in their coping efforts regardless of disconfirming experiences.

- Generality may also vary to the extent that some experiences create limited mastery expectations, while others instill a more generalised sense of efficacy that extends well beyond the current situation.

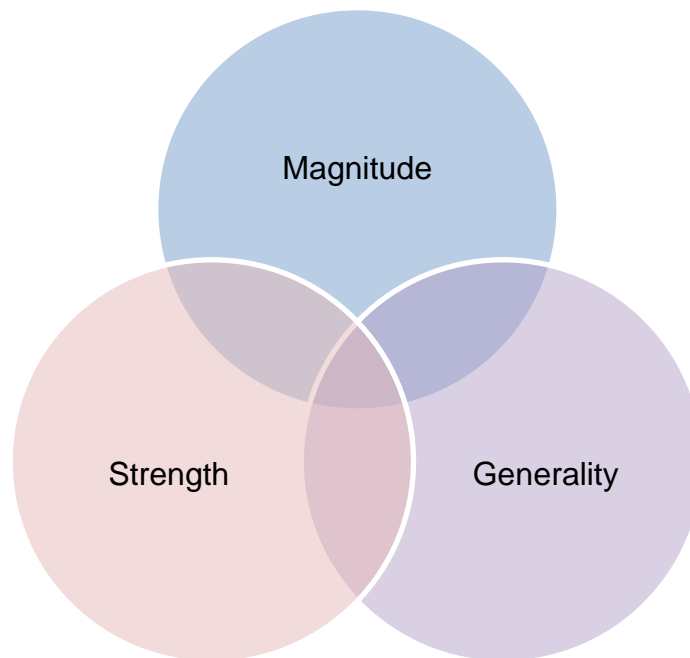


Figure 3.8: Dimensions of self-efficacy (Adapted from Bandura, 1977, p. 194)

ii. Sources of self-efficacy

According to (Bandura, 1997, 2004), people's beliefs about their efficacy could be developed and reinforced in four ways. These are shown in Figure 3.9 and are discussed as follows:

- *Past performance or mastery experience*, – according Bandura (1977, 2004) past performance is the most influential source since it is based on personal mastery of experiences. Successes build a healthy belief in one's self-efficacy, whereas failures undermine it. Employees who have succeeded in job-related tasks are more likely to have more confidence to complete comparable tasks in the future (high self-efficacy) than those who have been unsuccessful (low self-efficacy). Self-efficacy could be improved through professional development and coaching, goal setting, providing challenging assignments and supportive leadership (Lunenbourg, 2011).
- *Vicarious experience or social modelling* – people are motivated by the achievements of others similar to them. If people see others like themselves succeed through

sustained effort they come to believe that they, too, have the capacity to do the same. Therefore, appropriate competencies are modeled to convey the basic skills required for people to experience sufficient success. (Bandura, 1997; Lunenburg, 2011).

- *Verbal persuasion or social persuasion* – when people are persuaded that they have what it takes to succeed, they exercise more effort than when they harbour self-doubts and dwell on personal inadequacies. In addition, when managers are confident that their subordinates can successfully perform a task, the subordinates perform at a higher level. (Bandura, 2004; Lunenburg, 2011; Yeagley, Subich, & Tokar, 2010).
- *Emotional arousal* – relates to people's reliance on their physical and emotional states to judge their capabilities. Stressful and demanding situations generally provoke emotional arousal that, depending on the situations, might have informative value concerning personal competency. Furthermore, people who expect to fail at some task or who find a task too demanding are likely to experience certain physiological (e.g. pounding heart, feeling flushed, sweaty palms, and maybe a headache). As such, these symptoms differ from individual to individual, but if they persist, may become associated with poor performance. Therefore, avoidance of stressful activities inhibits the development of coping skills, and the resulting lack of competency provides a realistic basis for fear, whereas acquiring behavioural means for controlling potential threats lessens or eliminates fear arousal (Bandura, 2004; Lunenburg, 2011).

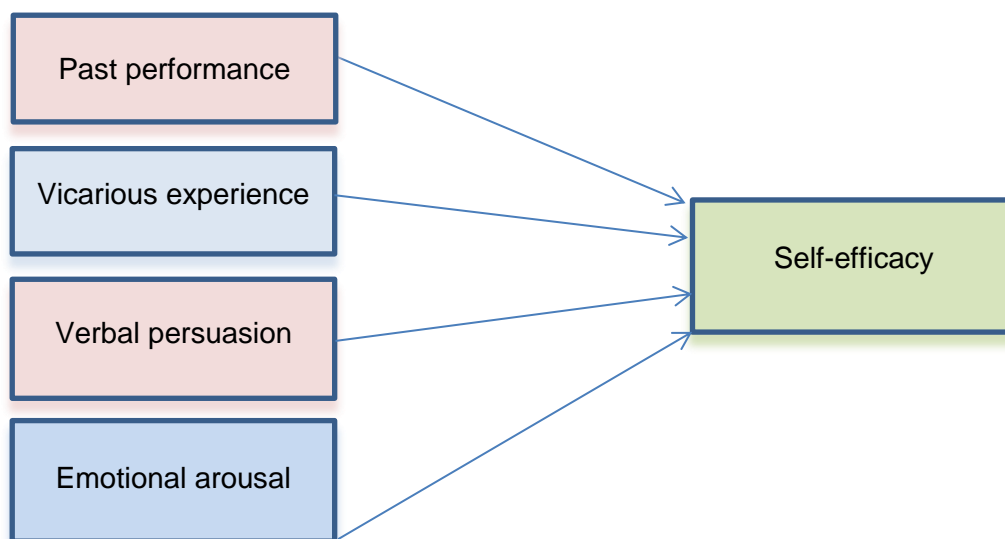


Figure 3.9: Sources of self-efficacy (Adapted from Bandura, 1977, pp. 195–200)

Although the sources of self-efficacy may influence efficacy expectations, it is important to note that the actual effect of any relevant information on a person's appraisal of self-efficacy will

depend on how he or she evaluates the information in the environment (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Bandura, 2012). According to Wood and Bandura (1989), people are likely to perform challenging activities and prefer social environments they consider capable of managing (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Therefore, the social influences in the chosen environments can set the direction of personal development through the competencies, values, and interests these influences encourage. (Wood & Bandura, 1989; Bandura, 2012).

Table 3.7 illustrates the three dimensions (magnitude, strength and generality) and measuring instrument of self-efficacy.

Table 3.7

The Self-efficacy Dimensions

Variables	Description	Instrument used to measure the construct
Magnitude	The level of task difficulty and complexity (low, moderate, high) an employee believes he or she can accomplish.	The New General Self-Efficacy (NGSE) scale (Chen et al., 2001)
	Levels of task difficulty and complexity represent different degrees of challenge for successful task performance.	
Strength	The certainty an employee has about performing at the level of task difficulty and complexity as indicated by the magnitude of self-efficacy. The higher the strength of self-efficacy, the higher the likelihood of successful performance.	
Generality	The degree to which the expectation is generalised across situations.	

Source: Adapted from Bandura (1977, p. 194)

The issues of analysing levels of self-efficacy are central to the debate over the functional properties of self-efficacy, since incorrect specification of levels of self-efficacy may produce spurious results (Yeo & Neal, 2013). As such, it is important to note that personal judgments made about an individual's self-efficacy capabilities can be overestimated, to the extent that confidence reported in solving task problems may not match with the actual performance (Michaelides, 2008). Some of Bandura's (1986, 1991, 1997) restrictive words which limit self-efficacy to situational demands, have given self-efficacy a narrow focus. Consequently, most researchers have limited their research to magnitude and strength dimensions, as well as conceptualising and studying self-efficacy as a task-specific or state-like construct instead of viewing it as a trait-like generality dimension (Chen et al., 2001; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Yeo & Neal, 2013).

In summary, the self-efficacy construct was conceptualised. Self-efficacy is an important motivational construct derived from the social cognitive theory founded on the agentic perspective of human self-development. Determinants that influence self-efficacy beliefs and dimensions of self-efficacy which have important performance implications were discussed.

3.1.4.3 *Variables influencing self-efficacy*

Some variables have been identified as antecedents of self-efficacy. The key variables of importance in this study are age, race, marital status and education level.

i. Age and race

Amatucci and Crawley (2011) found that age and racial differences are significantly related to self-efficacy with older women higher in self-efficacy and white women higher in self-efficacy than African American respondents.

ii. Marital status

Mashhady et al. (2012) found that married teachers' self-efficacy was significantly higher than that of single teachers and the married teachers' self-efficacy increased over time and with years of experience.

iii. Education level

Zhang et al. (2105) found a significant positive relationship between education level and self-efficacy. Abele and Spurk (2009) noted that individuals' self-efficacy at career entry had an effect on salary, salary change, hierarchical status and on status change. Abele and Spurk (2009) also suggest that, the higher the participants' self-efficacy and career advancement goals had been at career entry, the more they earned and the higher was their status later on.

In summary age, race, marital status and education level were found to influence self-efficacy.

3.1.4.4 *Implications for career development practices*

From the literature and studies reviewed, it can be suggested that the self-efficacy theory can be applied for work-related performance in terms of motivating different employee-related aspects as well as organisational practices (Adio & Popoola, 2010; Bandura, 2012; Cherian & Jacob, 2013). Counsellors could aim to encourage and strengthen the efficacy beliefs of women by applying the four principal sources of self-efficacy beliefs (past performance or mastery experiences, social modelling, verbal persuasion and emotional arousal) to increase career satisfaction. (Wood & Bandura, 1989; Zacher, 2014a).

According to Hackett and Betz (1981), due to socialisation and learning experiences, women lack efficacy beliefs to pursue careers of interest and thus fail to realise their talents and capabilities. Hence, women could be assisted in understanding and improving their self-efficacy beliefs by exploring appropriate career options to help them in the process of career development and satisfaction (Hackett & Betz, 1981; Pool & Qualter, 2013). Strong self-efficacy beliefs provide people with the motivation needed to be persistent, resilient and devoted to career and occupational goals (Zeldin et al., 2008). Career counsellors could use verbal persuasion by encouraging women to persevere when confronted with obstacles as well as express confidence in their capabilities to achieve career goals (Konstam et al., 2015; Wood & Bandura, 1989).

People develop a strong sense of efficacy beliefs through past performance or mastery experiences (Bandura, 2004). According to Wood and Bandura (1989), some obstacles and difficulties in pursuing careers are useful in teaching that success requires sustained effort. Thus, a resilient sense of efficacy could be improved through training and development, coaching, goal setting, providing challenging assignments and supportive leadership (Lunenburg, 2011).

Self-efficacy (beliefs about one's capabilities to successfully perform and accomplish specific tasks) influences the goals employees set for themselves and tasks they choose to learn (Lunenburg, 2011). Peoples' efficacy beliefs can be increased and developed in four principal ways, i.e. past performance or mastery experiences, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. (Bandura, 1977; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Lunenburg, 2011). The present study explored the extent to which the construct 'self-efficacy' was predictive of career satisfaction in a sample of professional women. Career counsellors and organisations could instil and strengthen women's efficacy beliefs in the workplace through training and development, coaching, goal setting and supportive leadership.

To conclude, this section focused on the conceptualisation and founding models for the psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy). Gender, age, race, marital status, education and career stages were found to influence the abovementioned psychological attributes. The above literature demonstrated that emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy are important psychological meta-capacities for successful adaptation in various people domains, more especially careers. However, little is known about the relationship between these resources and the present study investigated the relationship among these psychological attributes.

Next, social resources (perceived organisational and social support) are discussed.

3.2 SOCIAL RESOURCES

Social resources often referred to as social capital, denote accessible help from individuals or groups (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Social resources emanate from the structure and content of an individual's social relationships and their effect flow from the information, influence and solidarity they make available to the individual (Hirschi, 2012). This section focuses on the conceptualisation of two social resources, perceived organisational and social support. This will be followed by a discussion of the underpinning theoretical models and the variables influencing these resources.

Next, the construct of perceived organisational support is discussed.

3.2.1 Perceived organisational support

This section conceptualises perceived organisational support and will provide an overview of the theory of perceived organisational support by Eisenberger et al. (1986). The section concludes with a discussion of the variables influencing perceived organisational support and the implications for career satisfaction.

3.2.1.1 *Conceptualisation*

Perceived organisational support is presumed to be a global belief that employees form concerning their evaluation of the organisation (Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage, & Sucharski, 2004). Perceived organisational support was proposed by Eisenberger et al., (1986) to be employees' perception about the degree to which the organisation values their contribution and

cares about their well-being. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) posit that the extent to which the organisation values employee's contributions and cares about their well-being will determine the degree to which such perceived support is reciprocated with increased commitment, loyalty, and performance. Grounded on the experience of personally relevant organisational policies and procedures, the receipt of resources, and interactions with significant others or members who control resources in the organisation, an employee would form the organisation's general orientation towards him or her (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Chen (2011) argues that perceived organisational support may be derived either from the supervisors or from representatives of organisation who control material and symbolic resources. According to Chen (2011), supportive supervisors affect the willingness for individuals to engage in career development activities which are important for subordinate performance and career success.

Latif and Sher (2012) suggest that employees are concerned about how their organisations value their work and to what extent they are valued by the organisation. According to Eisenberger et al. (2004), to be viewed highly by the organisation helps to meet employees' needs for approval, esteem and affiliation. The employees' general perception that the organisation values and cares about their well-being in return obligates positive reciprocal employee work-related behaviours that are important to help the organisation reach its objectives and the expectation that improved performance will be rewarded (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Latif & Sher, 2012). Consequently, perceived organisational support offers the basis for trust in the organisation to observe and reward extra effort carried out on its behalf by the employees (Eisenberger et al., 2004).

Scholars have investigated the effect of perceived organisational support on career success in multiple organisational contexts (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Chen, 2010; Diao & Park, 2011; Kapoutsis, Papalexandris, Thanos, & Nikolopoulos, 2012; Latif & Sher, 2012). More specifically, Pachulicz et al. (2008) found that the more support a person perceived from the organisation, the higher the reported subjective career success. Similarly, Barnett and Bradley (2007) suggest organisations can influence employees' experience of career success by supporting their career development. An analysis of workers at a military base found that positive perceived organisational support led to career success in the form of pay and promotion (Diao & Park, 2011). Furthermore, a study of banking sector employees by Latif and Sher (2012) found perceived organisational support and pay satisfaction to have a significant effect on career satisfaction. A study of alumni women in a large state university by Jawahar and Hemmasi (2006) revealed that perceptions of a lack of organisational support for women advancement were related to turnover intention. These research findings highlight the

importance of ensuring organisational support to increase career satisfaction and retention of professional women (Jawahar & Hemmasi, 2006).

In summary, the concept of perceived organisational support was conceptualised as beliefs or perceptions employees form concerning their evaluation of the organisation. For the purpose of this study, perceived organisational support was defined as employees' perception about the degree to which the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

3.2.1.2 Theoretical models

This section will provide an overview of theories that underpin perceived organisational support.

a) Organisational support theory

Organisational support theory proposes that employees form a general perception regarding the degree to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Kurtessis et al., 2015). The organisational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986) assumes that the development of perceived organisational support is encouraged by employees' image of the organisation as suggested by their tendency to attribute the actions of organisational representatives to the intent of the organisation rather than merely to the personal motives of its agents (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) argue that organisational policies, culture, norms and power the representatives of the organisation exert over individual employees aid the image of the organisation.

Organisational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986) views the employee–organisation relationship from the employees' perspective and provides clarity of this relationship in relation to organisational commitment, job satisfaction and other attitudinal outcomes (Kurtessis et al., 2015). According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), employees view positive or unfavourable treatment from the organisation as an indication that they are cared or not cared for. In accordance with this view, Eisenberger et al. (1986) suggest that fairness of treatment, supervisor support and HR practices are antecedents that increase perceived organisational support. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that fairness, supervisor support and HR practices were associated with perceived organisational support. In a study by Kurtessis et al. (2015), organisational support theory was generally successful in its predictions concerning both the antecedents of perceived organisational support (HR practices or working conditions)

and its consequences (employees' orientation toward the organisation and work, employee performance and well-being).

i. Antecedents of perceived organisational support (POS)

According to Eisenberger et al. (1986), the following three forms of perceived favourable treatment received from the organisation have been found to increase perceived organisational support (POS):

- Fairness of treatment

Fairness is often understood in terms of two types of justice: distributive and procedural (Eisenberger et al., 2004). **Distributive** justice relates to fairness in the distribution of outcomes, such as promotions and salary increases, whereas **procedural** justice relates to fairness in the methods used to determine the distribution of resources among employees (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Because distributive aspects of receipt of outcomes (e.g. promotions and salary increases) do not occur frequently, procedural justice has been shown to have a strong cumulative effect on POS by indicating a concern for employees' welfare (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Shore & Shore, 1995). In a meta-analysis study by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), procedural justice and favourable outcomes were positively linked to POS.

Jawahar and Hemmasi (2006) indicated perceptions of a lack of organisational support among well-educated and experienced professional women. In addition, Jawahar and Hemmasi (2006) found that a lack of organisational support for women's advancement was related to frustration, turnover intentions and exiting the workforce. A study by Johlke, Stamper, and Shoemaker (2002) also found that females experience significantly lower POS than males. Likewise, Khurshid and Anjum (2012) found that female teachers experience low perceived organisational support than male teachers.

Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997) identify structural and social components as critical aspects of procedural justice, namely:

- Structural factors (i.e. formal rules and policies concerning decisions that affect employees), namely adequate notice before decisions are implemented, receipt of accurate information and employee participation in the decision process.

- Social components also often known as 'interactional justice' involve employees' perceptions of the favourableness of an interpersonal interaction accompanied by the quality of interpersonal treatment in resource allocation (Eisenberger et al., 2004). In addition, treating employees with dignity and respect as well as access to information concerning how outcomes are determined are considered as social components of procedural justice (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

A study by Streicher, Jonas, Maier and Frey (2012) found that justice in organisations and procedural fair conditions could foster cooperative, voluntary and constructive employee behaviour, such as motivation to meet organisational goals. Findings by Srivastava (2015) revealed that procedural justice and relational justice predicted job satisfaction of employees significantly positively, but distributive and informational justice did not predict job satisfaction. Additionally, Kurtessis et al. (2015) found that fairness made a strong unique contribution to POS, with procedural justice particularly having a stronger relationship with POS than other kinds of fairness.

• Supervisor support

Supervisor support is viewed as the impression of care and validation by the employees about their superiors' actions, which are perceived as the personal extension and indicators of the intent of the organisation (Latif & Sher, 2012). Supervision plays an important role with regards to satisfaction derived by subordinates in terms of the supervisor's ability to provide guidance, emotional and technical support in work-related activities (Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014). In addition, employees integrate the positive behaviour derived from various organisational representatives and divisions into an overall perception of organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Furthermore, behaviour derived from representatives of organisations contributes to POS to the extent that the representative's actions are believed to be endorsed and promoted by the organisation rather than seen as distinctive intentions of the representative (Eisenberger et al., 2004).

Although supervisors act as representatives of the organisation and have responsibility for directing and evaluating subordinates' performance, employees' favourable or unfavourable orientation towards their supervisors is indicative of the organisation's support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Since the supervisor is an important source of information and has the potential to influence an employee's perceptions, support from the supervisor would result in a positive relationship between the employee and the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Research finding by Saleem and Amin (2013) found that an increase in supervisory support

resulted in increasing and enhancing employee performance. Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog and Zagenczyk (2013) found that employees somewhat attribute abusive supervision to negative evaluation of the organisation and, thus, behaved negatively toward or withheld positive contributions to the organisation.

- Human resource (HR) practices

HR practices refer to specific practices and formal policies that are designed to attract, develop, motivate and retain employees to ensure the effective functioning and survival of the organisation (Nasurdin Hemdi, & Gual, 2008). HR practices shape the behaviours and attitudes of employees so that they become involved and participate to accomplish organisational goals (Huselid, 1995; Nasurdin et al., 2008). According to Lew (2009), HR practices play an important role in the development and maintenance of the exchange relationship between the employee and the organisation. In addition, Nasurdin et al. (2008) suggest that, how an organisation manages its human resources (as reflected by its HR practices) establishes the quality and conditions of the employee-employer relationship. Therefore, a positive employee-employer relationship could persuade employees to engage in positive work behaviours and attitudes (Nasurdin et al., 2008).

According to Lew (2009), organisational support theory suggests that the resources provided by the organisation are valued when they are based on discretionary choice rather than as a requirement. Discretionary choice infers an investment, whereas a required or legislated action is perceived as purely costs rather than an investment to employees (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Lew, 2009). Thus, deliberate or strategic HR practices that are intended to enhance the organisation's human capital, such as career development opportunities are considered an investment, and should contribute to POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Lew, 2009). A study by Narang and Singh (2011) found that HR practices, such as supervisor support and career development opportunities were significant predictors of POS. In addition, a study by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found HR practices such as autonomy, job security, training and promotion opportunities related to POS. Therefore, when HR practices are seen to be supportive, employees perceive that they are valued and cared for, which in turn, motivates them to reciprocate by showing their readiness to work hard in order to accomplish the organisation's goals (Narsudin et al., 2008).

ii. Psychological outcomes of perceived organisational support

Organisational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986) is grounded on the premise of social exchange and attribution (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997). The organisational support theory posits that POS depends on employees' attributions concerning the organisation and should be enhanced to the extent that employees attribute favourable treatment from the organisation (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Kurtessis et al., 2015). Additionally, POS initiates a social exchange process where employees feel obligated to help the organisation achieve its objectives and expects that increased efforts on the organisation's behalf will result in more rewards (Kurtessis et al., 2015). According to Eisenberger et al. (2004), in providing employees with favourable rewards, the organisation demonstrates that it values its employees, which in turn, increase employees' expectancies that high performance will be rewarded and thus, increases POS. A study by Ristig (2009) found that POS was positively related to performance–reward expectancies.

The social exchange model (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) assumes that employment is a trade of effort and loyalty for tangible benefits or resources between the employee and the organisation (Kurtessis et al., 2015). According to Aselage and Eisenberger (2003), social exchange theory suggests the importance of understanding employees' motivation to achieve organisational objectives (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Kurtessis et al. (2015) indicate that, POS should elicit the principle of reciprocity which prompts a felt obligation to help the organisation in anticipation that increased performance will be noticed and rewarded. Overtime, reciprocation of increasingly valued resources should strengthen the exchange relationship, to the extent that both partners possess resources strongly desired by the other (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Therefore, a major force in the exchange relationship is that people are satisfied when they receive a fair return for their expenditure or effort (Shahsavarani et al., 2016).

iii. Behavioural outcomes of perceived organisational support

Social exchange theory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) suggests that reciprocation of increasingly valued resources should strengthen the exchange relationship and lessen withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover (Eisenberger et al., 2004). A study by Chen (2011) found that knowledge employees with POS reported high levels of career satisfaction, which in turn contributed to high levels of organisational citizenship behaviour and performance than employees with low POS. Chen (2011) also found that employees who are satisfied with their careers are likely to strive towards achieving organisational goals and

remain in the organisation. Likewise, Barnett and Bradley (2007) found that organisational support was significantly related to employee career satisfaction. In addition, Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009) found that respondents who perceived that their organisation valued their contribution and cared about their well-being expressed higher levels of satisfaction with their career and a greater intent to stay in the organisation than employees who perceived low organisational support.

According to Eisenberger et al. (2004), the organisation offers important socio-emotional resources, (e.g. respect and caring) and tangible benefits, such as salary and promotion. Organisational support matters to the extent that, if absent, employees could engage in mobility-oriented behaviours – that is gaining marketable knowledge or making plans to leave if the organisation does not offer a rewarding career (Storey, 2016; Sturges, Conway, & Liefoghe, 2010).

In summary, the organisational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986) is grounded on the premise of social exchange and attribution which suggests reciprocation of valued resources should strengthen the exchange relationship between the organisation and employees. POS – that is, fulfilment of socio-emotional resources, (respect, caring and valuing the contribution of employees) and performance–reward expectancies (commensurate salary, promotion, career development opportunities) should contribute to increased satisfaction with careers.

3.2.1.3 Variables influencing perceived organisational support

Some variables have been identified as precursors of POS. The key variables of importance in this study were age, race and marital status.

i. Age

Research findings suggest that perceptions of young and older employees differ. Kaur (2017) found that older employees have higher levels of POS compared to young employees. This was congruent with the results of Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009), which revealed that respondents who felt that their organisation was providing its older managerial and professional employees with opportunities to upgrade their skills and to acquire new skills perceived their organisation as more supportive than respondents whose organisation was not engaging in these training and development practices.

ii. Race

A study by Faupel-Badger, Nelson and Izmirlian (2017) showed that race other than white was associated with low career satisfaction with one's career trajectory and career development opportunities for career growth. Findings by Luksyte, Waite, Avery and Roy (2013) showed that black employees perceived fewer career advancement opportunities than their Hispanic or white counterparts.

iii. Marital status

A study by Khurshid and Anjum (2012) suggested that married employees showed higher POS than unmarried employees. On the contrary, there was no significant difference in the level of POS among married and unmarried employees (Kaur, 2017).

In summary, age and marital status were found to influence POS. The present study explored the extent to which the above variables had an influence on the POS among professional participating women.

3.2.1.4 *Implications for career development practices*

POS indicates the degree to which employees perceive their organisation care about their well-being, respects them, and values their contribution (Jamahar & Hemmasi, 2006). Research suggests that antecedents of perceived organisational support namely, supportive treatment and favourable work experiences create a supportive environment and also encourage employees to actively make use of the opportunities for career development (De Vos et al., 2011; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). Hoobler et al. (2011) found that biased managerial decisions involving allocating challenging work, training and development and career management meant women had lower managerial aspirations and thus accrued less organisational development.

Research findings indicate that organisations which invest in training and development practices are perceived as valuing employee contribution and care about their well-being (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009). Shanock and Eisenberger (2006) indicate that supervisory support is a significant form of caring and valuing employees' contributions. Supportive supervisors have a positive effect on the individual's willingness to engage in career development activities. (Ballout, 2007). Therefore, supervisors could build a supportive work

environment and offer additional support to help professional women balance both family responsibilities and career progression (Wang, 2009).

Organisational policies and attitudinal biases often perpetuate barriers that create unsupportive work environments, and in doing so impede women from performing as effectively as their male counterparts (Cross & Linehan, 2006). Conducting inclusive and gender diversity training could help men understand issues facing women and avoid making incorrect gender-role assumptions that disadvantage women's career development (Wang, 2009).

Organisations could implement transforming work structures, processes, and practices that perpetuate gender inequality (Bilimoria, Joy, & Liang, 2008). It is important to look at the organisational structure, policies, processes, demography, work flows and work assignments that may constrain women's career development and satisfaction (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009; Wang, 2009). For instance, mentoring has major implications for the career advancement of professional women (Kelly, 2001). However, professional women have long experienced difficulties in finding and securing a mentor in organisations (Wang, 2009). Therefore, organisations could ensure that formal mentoring programs are promoted as a policy mechanism so that women have access to mentoring experiences that are equivalent to their male counterparts (Wang, 2009).

In summary, organisational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986) is applicable to the present study, since it views the employee-organisation relationship from the employees' perspective and provides clarity of this relationship in relation to attitudinal outcomes, such as career satisfaction. The model posits that the organisation is supportive and helpful in creating opportunities for the career development and satisfaction of women. However, there is a paucity of previous studies that have established a link between POS and the career satisfaction of professional women. In accordance with the view of organisational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986), one of the aims of this present study was to address this gap in the literature by examining the influence of POS on the career satisfaction of professional women. The present study, analysed how POS relate to professional women's career satisfaction and posited that there would be a positive relationship between POS and career satisfaction. Therefore, it seems that women who perceive high levels of organisational support would report increased career satisfaction than women who experience low perceived organisational support.

Next, the social support construct is discussed.

3.2.2 Social support

In this section, social support is conceptualised and the theoretical models are discussed. The section concludes with a discussion of the variables influencing social support and the implications for career satisfaction.

3.2.2.1 Conceptualisation

Social support stems from people to whom an individual is socially tied (i.e. family members, friends, spouse, parents, work peers, supervisors or mentors) (Oti, 2013). Intrinsically, social support involves some kind of relationship transaction between individuals, and the nature of the transaction is specified in various ways (Zimet et al., 1988). The literature indicates that individuals proactively manage their own careers by engaging in a variety of informal relational career support behaviours (i.e. personal, peer and network support) to enhance their well-being, career development and sense of success (Nabi, 2001; Saleem & Amin, 2013). A study by Oti (2013) found that parental influence and spousal support related to career growth, while collegial support predicted leadership positions. In contrast, individuals who are socially excluded from these relationships may feel unsupported because they lack the close relationships that can afford access to social support in the workplace (Sloan et al., 2013).

Cross and Linehan (2006) argue that stereotypical ideas that married male managers are viewed as an asset with a stable support network at home, allow them undivided attention to advance their careers and perform well, while married women are considered a liability who at every opportunity are likely to neglect their careers at the expense of their families. According to Terrion and Leonard (2007), social support provides a career-related function for advice and information for successful completion of tasks, career progression and success. In addition, social support enhances the individual's sense of self and increases his or her sense of control, belonging, competence and confidence in a professional role (Higgins, 2001; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Thoits, 2011).

Taylor and Broffman (2011) suggest that social support is a perception or experience that one is loved, cared for by others, is valued and esteemed, and is part of a social network of reciprocated assistance and obligations. Shumaker and Brownell (1984), define social support as trading of resources between at least two individuals – that is, the provider or the receiver with the intention to improve the well-being of the beneficiary. Albrecht and Adelman (1987) characterise social support as verbal and nonverbal communication between the provider and the receiver to reduce uncertainty about the situation, the self, the other or the relationship for

the purpose of enhancing a perception of personal control in one's life experiences. Gottlieb (2000) views social support to be an interactive process or an interface in relationships in order to promote coping, esteem, belonging and competence through actual or perceived exchanges of physical and psychosocial attributes.

Social support is defined as a helpful resource that could meet an individual's urgent needs and is provided by a support network of others, such as family, friends, coworkers and significant others (Kostova, Caiata-Zufferey, & Schulz, 2015). In a literature study of thirty definitions of social support, Williams, Barclay and Schmied (2004) define social support as temporarily short term or enduring construct that requires the existence of various relationships characterised by structure, strength, nature and type to determine the kind of social support available and its significance varies over the life course. Individuals may emphasise their social support as perceived social support, which is subjective support based on self-understanding of their experiences and feelings from different sources (Kostova et al., 2015; Xu et al, 2017). Alternatively, social support could be viewed as enacted social support, which is objective, practical and visible support, along with direct physical assistance from a social network (Lakey, Orehek, Hain, & Van Vleet, 2010; Xu et al., 2017). It is suggested that perceived social support could play a bigger role on desired life outcomes than enacted social support (Lakey et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2017).

For the purpose of the present study, social support refers to a helpful resource that could meet an individual's urgent needs and stem from social ties such as family, friends, coworkers and significant others, which reflect perceptions of personal control (Albrecht & Adelman, 1987; Kostova, Caiata-Zufferey, & Schulz, 2015; Oti, 2013).

Literature review suggest that social support takes various forms – that is emotional support (active listening, empathy and encouragement), professional support (mentoring and guidance), or practical support (financial or helping with task completion) (Jairam & Kahl, 2012; Oti, 2013). The inclusion of work-family state support shows that family members and spouses have a unique opportunity to provide both emotional and instrumental support to employees outside of the workplace (Annink, Den Dulk, & Steijn, 2016). According to Williams et al. (2004), supportive resources comprise the following:

- *Emotional support* takes the form of emotional expression and may sustain an individual in the short or long term.
- *Instrumental emotional support* may help individuals to master their emotional burdens.

- *Coherence support* may be overt or covert information increasing confidence in an individual's preparation for a life event or transition.
- *Validation* may cause individuals to feel someone believes in them.
- *Inclusion* may escalate a sense of belonging.

Jairam and Kahl (2012) found that emotional support (empathy, active listening and encouragement), practical or tangible support (finances and taking care of chores) and professional support from advisors played a significant role in the successful completion of a doctoral degree. According to Lakey (2007), individuals with high perceptions of social support believe that they can count on their family and friends to provide emotional support, such as expressing warmth and affection, or offering advice than individuals with low perceptions of social support.

A study of successful women in several countries by Lirio et al. (2007) found that higher levels of social support in the form of emotional, instrumental and appraisal support from family members contributed to career success. Similarly, Nabi (2001) and Jepson (2010) found that women with high levels of social support tended to experience success in their careers. In a study of white working-class young women, Freie (2010) found that young women discussed their future plans with their mothers and career decisions were informed by life lessons learnt from witnessing their mothers' struggles with family, education and employment. Despite discrimination, cultural and organisational barriers women face, families were perceived as generally supportive of women pursuing careers (Omair, 2010).

A study by Higgins (2001) found that individuals' decisions about careers are socially embedded in a diverse network of advisors, which gives empowerment to make positive career decisions and provides confidence to overcome career obstacles. According to Hayton, Carnabuci, and Eisenberger (2012), dense networks increase supportive behaviours and thus, colleagues embedded in these dense networks are more strongly motivated to provide quality supportive behaviours than colleagues embedded in scant networks. Furthermore, networks should have a positive effect on career outcomes, such as information exchange, collaboration, support and acquisition of tacit knowledge (Wang, 2009).

In examining gender differences, Zimet, Powell, Farley, Werkman, and Berkoff (1990) found that women reported receiving significantly greater support from friends and significant other than men. However, Osman, Lamis, Freedenthal, Gutierrez, and McNaughton-Cassill (2014) noted that the social support construct is similar for both gender groups. Osman et al. (2014)

observed that regardless of gender, perceived social support was positively associated with family relationships and negatively related to levels of hopelessness.

Women significantly have more intimate social support from their network than male workers (McGuire, 2012; McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Brashears, 2006). Similarly, McGuire (2012) suggests that female workers receive more social support from the women in their network than male workers. Nabi (2001) found that peer support regarded as a powerful predictor of men's subjective career success, whereas personal support was seen as a powerful predictor of women's subjective career success (Nabi, 2001). In a study by Shieman (2006), women reported a higher level of co-worker support than men. In addition, a study by Morrison (2009) suggested that participating women were significantly more likely than men to portray the benefits of workplace friendships in terms of social and emotional support, while participating men focused mostly on receiving functional, task or career-related benefits from their friends at work.

In summary, social support was conceptualised as an interactive process or a trade of resources between two or more individuals with the intention to improve the well-being of the recipient. Social support stems from people to whom an individual is socially tied (i.e., peer, supervisor, mentor, spouse or parent). For the purpose of this study, social support is defined as a verbal and nonverbal communication between the provider and receiver to reduce uncertainty about the situation, the self, the other, or the relationship for the purpose of enhancing a perception of personal control in one's life experiences (Albrecht & Adelman, 1987).

3.2.2.2 *Theoretical models*

This section provides an overview of the theory that underpin social support.

a) Social exchange theory

According to Sjolander and Ahlstrom (2012), social support networks represent reciprocal exchanges of verbal and non-verbal information. Shumaker and Brownell (1984) suggest that social support comprises an exchange process between at least two participants and a wide-ranging support outcomes. In addition, a need for support, a desire for deeper relationships with significant other and a network to turn to are viewed as the antecedents of social support (Sjolander & Ahlstrom, 2012).

i. Social support as an exchange process

Shumaker and Brownell (1984) argue that support makes overt the assumption that it necessarily involves at least two individuals with potential costs and benefits associated with the exchange for both participants. In accordance with this view, Shumaker and Brownell (1984) suggest that the participants may evaluate these costs and benefits by way of reciprocity and prosocial behaviour.

- Reciprocity refers to a norm according to which a person treats another well, and obligates the return of favourable treatment, which may be in the form of impersonal resources such as finances, services and information or socioemotional resources in the form of approval, respect or liking (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). For instance, an obligation to repay benefits may help strengthen interpersonal relationships that are essential for mutual nurturing and caring (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Shumaker & Brownell, 1984). However, some people may be unwilling to become indebted to others and may therefore be less likely to seek assistance or accept the benefits offered (Shumaker & Brownell (1984). Hence, relationships between providers and recipients may weaken, and over time cause social ties to disintegrate thereby making recipients more vulnerable to stressors (Shumaker & Brownell (1984).
- The term 'prosocial behaviour' refers to the positive actions that benefit others and are driven by empathy, moral values and a sense of personal responsibility rather than a desire for personal gain (Kidron & Fleischman, 2006). For example, positive and supportive social relationships, such as close and warm family relationships and being positively viewed by peers, are associated with prosocial behaviour (De Guzman, Jung, & Do, 2012). Research findings by Lai, Siu and Shek (2015) indicate that social influence factors, such as peer and parent influence are strong predictors of prosocial behaviour. Additionally, prosocial behaviours are primarily intended to benefit others, and could lead to positive outcomes, such as subjective well-being, positive associations with peers and self-esteem (De Guzman et al., 2012).

ii. Participants in social support exchange

According to Williams et al. (2004), the effect of potentially supportive exchanges is influenced by the recognition of an individual's need for and the extent to which supportive behaviours are perceived to have satisfied the need or have given rise to a positive outcome for the recipient.

Shumaker and Brownell (1984) propose that the inclusion of at least two people in the definition of social support suggests the need to consider the relationship of the actors to one another and how this relationship might affect support. Williams et al. (2004) argue that perceived and actual support is influenced by the characteristics of the recipient (i.e. affective state, appraisal of need, the self and the resources offered and the action taken). Similarly, the characteristics of provider influence social support (i.e. appraisals of need, the self, readiness of the action taken, outcome of action and association with the recipient) (Williams et al., 2004).

While social support takes many different forms, the focus of this study was the family and co-workers, who are often a major source of supportive bonds (Schieman, 2006). According to Schieman (2006), people who have supportive workplace relationships feel close to and are appreciated by fellow workers, believing that co-workers will take time to talk about problems if needed. These actions create in employees the sense that others in the workplace care about their well-being and in some respects, supportive work environments may provide an escape from stressful home domains.

According to Shumaker and Brownell (1984), social support usually occurs between people who are members of the same network; however, helpful acts may occur when people are in distress and strangers come to their aid (for example, prosocial behaviours discussed above). There is some evidence to suggest that relational factors (i.e. strength of network ties or the degree of intimacy within a relationship or social similarity such as race and sex) contribute to the receipt of social support (McGuire, 2012). Schieman (2006) found that overall, women reported a higher level of co-worker support than men. Likewise, McGuire (2012) found that the number of women and the number of blacks in a network were positively related to the social support received, suggesting that female network members give more social support than male network members, and that black network members give more social support than white network members. Therefore, being in occupations with a higher proportion of women will likely expose women further to workplace contexts that are conducive to forming socioemotional bonds (Schieman, 2006).

iii. Broad outcomes of social support

The overall function of social support is to increase the recipient's well-being, thereby promoting the physical and psychological well-being of the individual (Shumaker & Brownell, 1984; Thoits, 2011). Williams et al. (2004) suggest the following social support outcomes of emotional provision:

- feeling loved or cared for;
- feeling attached or being able to confide in others;
- enhancing one's self-esteem; and
- feeling secure and having association or interaction with others.

According to Shumaker and Brownell (1984), and as illustrated in Table 3.8, through support individuals can obtain feelings of belonging that satisfy affiliative needs, and through interactions, individuals heighten self-identity and self-esteem enrichment.

Table 3.8

Social Support Resources and their Potential Effects on Recipients

Resources	Immediate	Long-term		
Expression of caring: love, understanding, concern and intimacy	Positive Feeling cared for and valued with increased positive mood state	Negative Feeling smothered or controlled	Positive Greater sense of personal security, increased bonding attachment and emotional well-being	Negative Dependency
Inclusion in group activities	Sense of social integration and increased perception of number of friends and support	Heightened feelings of obligation to conform to group norms and indebtedness	Feelings of security	May hinder development of individual identity or model poor health habits.
Reassurance of worth: approval, praise, and expression of respect	Boosts self-confidence	Over-confidence and uncritical view of judgments	Positive self-esteem and emotional well-being.	Rigidity and self-centredness
Feedback about behaviours and beliefs	Reduces ambiguity and fear and increases a sense of purpose	Learnt inappropriate responses	Strong sense of self-identity and emotional well-being	Poor physical health
Listening: promoting self-disclosure	Emotional release and feeling cared for	Embarrassment	Strong sense of self-identity and reduced anxiety	Heightened low self-esteem
Verbal information regarding severity of threat and its objective reality, potential coping strategies, and referral to other network members	Clear interpretation of threat, greater confidence and reduced helplessness	Sense of inadequacy if models have greater coping abilities.	Physical and emotional well-being, sense of personal strength and efficacy.	Heightened low self-esteem
Tangible assistance: Finances, skills, services, and tasks sharing	Better able to meet demands and greater confidence	Indebtedness and embarrassment	Physical and emotional well-being with positive self-esteem.	Resentment and dependency

Source: Adapted from Shumaker and Brownell (1984, p. 27)

The provision of information or feedback regarding the recipient or his or her situation in particular or broadly is intrinsic across all the supportive resources (Williams et al., 2004). When individuals receive ongoing support that provides them with a sense of security, bolsters their self-esteem, strengthens their self-identity and improves physical and psychological well-being, they are less likely to be vulnerable to stressors than individuals who lack support (Shumaker & Brownell, 1984; Thoits, 2011). In contrast, being available to someone in need can be emotionally draining to the provider of the support resulting in burnout, and moreover, provision of some resources includes the competing expenditure of time and money (Shumaker & Brownell, 1984; Sjolander & Ahlstrom, 2012). However, the ability to be supportive and nurturing may be a fulfilling and self-validating experience that also increases the sense of efficacy and trust (Shumaker & Brownell, 1984).

Social support is a multi-faceted concept that remains ambiguous and difficult to conceptualise since nearly anything that assumes a social interaction may be considered social support (Hupcey, 1998; Sjolander & Ahlstrom, 2012; Williams et al., 2004). This variation can be ascribed to the use of different measures and operational definitions of the term 'social support' from one study to another (Sjolander & Ahlstrom, 2012). Although the concept of social support is not in its infancy, it is clearly not fully developed because rather than being well defined, there are multiple and competing definitions (Sjolander & Ahlstrom, 2012; Williams et al., 2004). Even if social support can be generally operationalised, there seems to be a lack of contextual detail to make it useful for research (Williams et al., 2004). Hence, while the concept is largely used, its definition remains inconsistent and often inappropriate (Sjolander & Ahlstrom, 2012).

In summary, social support stems from a network of people to whom an individual is socially tied and involves reciprocal exchange of verbal and non-verbal information. The social support system may provide emotional resources (e.g. feedback, expressing warmth and support or listening) and material resources (e.g. provision of goods, skill resources or finances) offered by others and is also dependent on reciprocal and accessible relationships which subsequently result in the physical and psychological well-being of the individual. Measures of social support fall into one of three categories: (a) social network and social integration, (b) received support, and (c) perceived available support (Williams et al., 2004). In the context of this research, it is proposed social support received from family and friends that include work related friendships may help enhance the career satisfaction of professional women.

b) Social capital

Social capital is gaining importance as a notion that provides a foundation for describing and depicting the set of relationships in an organisation (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). According to Adler and Kwon (2009), social capital is broadly viewed as a type of social structure that facilitates action and inform the study of families, education, community life, governance, economic development, and general problems of collective action (Adler & Kwon, 2009). Researchers in organisation studies used social capital to help explain concepts such as career success, creation of intellectual capital, networks, knowledge sharing and transfer, and employment practices (Adler & Kwon, 2009; Chiu, Hsu, & Wang, 2006; Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Leana & Van Buren, 1999; McFadyen & Cannella, 2004; Seibert et al., 2001). Social capital is broadly described as an asset embedded in relationships between individuals, communities, networks or societies (Leana & Van Buren, 1999). According to Adler and Kwon (2009), social capital denotes helpful action from the main actor to other actors and is intrinsic to networks in explaining the success of individuals and organisations (Adler & Kwon, 2009).

According to Leana and Van Buren (1999), social capital is a resource which reflects the character of social relationships in the organisation, is realised through members' levels of collective goal orientation, shared trust and facilitates successful collective action. Adler and Kwon (2009) define social capital as a resource for individual and collective actors created by the formation and content of the network of their more or less strong social relationships. Coleman (1990) defined social capital as consisting of any aspects of a social structure which assist certain actions of individuals within the structure and is productive, by making possible the achievement of certain ends that would not be possible in its absence. Similarly, Baker (1990) defined social capital as a resource that is created by changes in the relationship between individuals, is derived from specific social structures, and makes it possible to use these structures to pursue the individuals' welfare. The present study adopts an integrated view of social capital as a resource for individual and collective actors reflecting the character of social relationships in the organisation derived from specific social structures, which make it possible to achieve certain ends that would not be possible in their absence (Adler & Kwon, 2009; Baker, 1990; Coleman, 1988; Leana & Van Buren, 1999).

According to Adler and Kwon (2009), the following sources make a distinctive contribution to the formation of social capital:

- Social networks are a set of ties representing some relationship between the actors (Wang, 2009). Networks often mean informal face-to-face interaction or membership in

public associations or social clubs. Networks influence the main actor's social capital both through the actor's direct ties and through the indirect ties afforded the actors by virtue of the overall structure of the broader network within which they are embedded. A study by Seibert et al. (2001) found that network structures positively relate to the level of social resources embedded in a person's network which, in turn, positively related to career success (current salary, number of promotions over the career and career satisfaction).

- Shared norms are a sociocultural component of social capital which provides the context in which meaning is acquired. These norms become available to individuals and groups to facilitate an individual or collective action not otherwise possible (Edwards & Foley, 1997). Norms create generalised reciprocity that binds communities and serves to transform individuals from self-centred agents, with little sense of obligation to members of a community with shared interests and a sense of common good.
- Social capital stems in part from the availability of a common belief system that is shared and which allows participants to communicate their ideas and make sense of common experiences. Such communicative resources allow common world-views, assumptions, and expectations to emerge from among people to facilitate their joint action. Hence, individuals learn to identify with each other and support each other's initiatives even in situations of difficulty, which in turn leads to formation of similar belief systems (for example, individual and organisational success).
- Formal institutions and rules can have a powerful effect on social capital via their influence on networks, shared norms and beliefs. First, formal rules and institutions can shape the network structure and the content of ties especially when ties come with positions and not by voluntarily choice. The effect of formal structures on the network structure ultimately influences social capital. Second, formal institutions and rules can influence norms and beliefs by setting in motion a process which leads to the reduction of deep-rooted inherent counterproductive norms and beliefs, and by doing so increases social capital.

In summary, social capital provides a foundation for describing and depicting the set of relationships between actors and is broadly understood as a type of social structure that facilitates action. Social networks, shared norms, formal institutions as well as rules make a distinctive contribution to the formation of social capital.

i. Dimensions of social capital

Drawing from the work by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998), Inkpen and Tsang (2005) illustrate the structural dimension (network ties, network configuration, and network stability); the relational dimension comprising trust; and the cognitive dimension consisting of shared goals and culture. Table 3.9 shows the three social capital dimensions.

Table 3.9

Dimensions Underpinning Social capital

Dimension	Description	Facets of dimensions
Structural	The pattern of relationships between the network actors analysed from the perspective of network ties, network configuration and network stability.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Network ties deal with specific ways in which the actors, are related and are a crucial aspect of social capital since an actor's network of social ties creates opportunities for social capital transactions. • The network configuration determines the pattern of linkages among network members. The elements of configuration such as hierarchy, density, and connectivity affect the flexibility and ease of knowledge interchange through their influence on the extent of contact and accessibility among network members. • Network stability involves the change of membership in a network. For instance, a highly unstable network may limit opportunities for the creation of social capital, because when an actor leaves the network, ties disappear.
Relational	Gives emphasis to the role of direct ties between actors and the interpersonal, as opposed to structural outcomes of interaction.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trust is based on social judgments, (e.g. assessment of the other party's goodwill or competence) together with assessment of the costs (e.g. risk) if the other party turns out to be untrustworthy. • Trust plays a crucial role in the willingness of network actors to share knowledge. Lack of trust could lead to competitive confusion about whether or not a network group is an ally or not. Equally, an atmosphere of trust should contribute to the free exchange of knowledge between committed exchange associates.
Cognitive	Characterises the resources providing shared meaning and understanding between network members.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shared goals denote the level to which network actors share a common understanding and approach to the achievement of network tasks and outcomes. Dependent on the network type, the tasks and outcomes may vary in clarity and definition. • Shared culture defines the extent to which norms of behaviour govern relationships. This aspect sets institutional rules and norms that govern appropriate ways of behaving in the network.

Source: Adapted from Inkpen and Tsang (2005)

In summary, structural, relational and cognitive dimensions as illustrated in Figure 3.9 are important aspects of social capital that depict an organisation's set of relationships.

ii. Benefits of social capital

Sandefur and Laumann (1998) identify information, influence and control and social solidarity as benefits of social capital. Alder and Kwon (2009) discuss these benefits as follows:

- For the main actor, social capital enables access to broader sources of information at lower cost. For example, women professionals can catch up on the latest information for career advancement in related fields through daily interaction with their colleagues. Leana and Van Buren (1999) emphasise the role of social capital in facilitating intellectual capital. According to Leana and Van Buren (1999), shared language, metaphors and perspectives can be efficient forms of transferring knowledge and, as a result, could increase the intellectual capacity of individuals and the organisation as a whole.
- Power facilitates the completion of tasks and enables powerful actors to lead others toward a common goal as well as facilitate collective action.
- Social capital is a facilitator of solidarity. Strong social norms and beliefs, linked to a high degree of closure of the social network, encourage compliance with local rules and customs, and reduce the need for formal control (Alder & Kwon, 2009). Additionally, Leana and Van Buren (1999) argue that emphasis on collective identity and action as well as reliance on generalised trust, rather than formal monitoring should enable the adoption of effective of high-performance work practices.

At organisational level, benefits of social capital comprise privileged access to knowledge and information, preferential opportunities for new business, reputation, influence and enhanced understanding of network norms (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). A study by Seibert et al. (2001) revealed the importance of social capital to career success. In addition, Leana and Van Buren (1999) suggest that social capital could facilitate a flexible work organisation rather than rigidity in the way work is organised and carried out. Therefore, implementation of HR practices that emphasise employee involvement, training, flexible deployment, and labour management cooperation would be associated with productivity improvements, cost savings and enhancement of work performance (Leana & Van Buren, 1999).

Like any asset, social capital is not without constraints and risks. For instance, Alder and Kwon (2009) suggest that building social capital requires considerable investment in establishing and maintaining relationships. The literature cite maintenance costs as well as a fair amount of time and energy associated with maintaining ongoing relationships and norms (Leana & Van Buren, 1999; McGuire, 2012). On the one hand, new members of organisations need to be socialised in the norms, values, and ways of working inherent to the workgroup and the organisation. This initial and ongoing socialisation can be costly in terms of time, resources and energy (Leana & Van Buren, 1999; McGuire, 2012). On the other hand, strong solidarity with in-group members may over-embed the actors in the relationship, which may reduce the flow of new ideas into the group, closed-mindedness and apathy (Alder & Kwon, 2009). According to Leana and Van Buren (1999), it is likely that social capital may lay the foundation for risk taking that is inherent in organisationally felt trust, the development of new ways of doing things and outcomes of innovation. However, at lesser extremes, social structures and power relationships can propagate themselves into limiting the consideration and acceptance of innovation and change among employees (Leana & Van Buren, 1999).

In summary, social support stems from a network of people (e.g. peer, supervisor, mentor, spouse or parent) to whom an individual is socially tied and involves reciprocal exchange of verbal and non-verbal information. Social capital is broadly understood as a type of social structure that facilitates action and which provides a foundation for describing and depicting the set of relationships in an organisation. Social networks, shared norms, formal institutions and rules contribute to the formation of social capital. The structural, relational and cognitive dimensions were identified as important aspects of social capital that depict the set of relationships to enhance social support. The social support system may provide emotional, practical and professional resources to improve the well-being of the individual. Drawing from the reciprocal exchange theory, it is expected that high perceived social support for women's career development will increase career satisfaction.

The focus of the present study is on social support (family, friends and significant others) as one of the social attributes which could enhance the career satisfaction of professional women.

3.2.2.3 Variables influencing social support

Thoits (2011) argues that social ties and social support from significant others provide emotionally sustaining behaviours and instrumental aid, which promotes physical health and emotional well-being. A study by Nabi (2001) suggested social support in the form of peer

support was strongly related to men's subjective career success, whereas personal support was strongly related to women's subjective career success.

i. Age

A study by Knoll and Schwarzer (2002) found that young women reported receiving the highest social support, whereas middle aged and older women indicated relatively low levels of social support.

ii. Race

Research findings by Sloan et al. (2013) suggest that compared to their white counterparts, African Americans are disadvantaged in terms of workplace social ties and perceived co-worker support. However, Sloan et al. (2013) also found that the racial composition of the workplace may influence the formation of workplace social ties and that both black and white co-workers experience similar emotional benefits of social support.

iii. Marital status

In relation to marital status, findings indicate that marital status creates contexts that shape employed parents' perceived work-family conflict (Nomaguchi, 2012). Aycan and Eskin (2005) suggest that organisational and spousal support is related to reducing work-family conflict for men whereas spousal support was related to reducing work-family conflict for women. Demerouti, Geurts and Kompier (2004) found that low social support in the home situation increases work-family conflict. Ahmed and Carrim (2016) found that the emotional support received from husbands assisted the career progression of women.

In summary, age, race and marital status were found to influence social support. The present study explored the extent to which the above variables had an influence on the social support among the participating professional women.

3.2.2.4 *Implications for career development practices*

Research indicates that social support improves employees' well-being and job performance (McGuire, 2012). Perceived social support may be related to coping capabilities of individuals who feel they have emotional and instrumental support from family, friends, and other important persons in their lives (Calvete & Connor-Smith, 2006). According to Oti (2013), parental

influence and spousal support are essential for career growth, while spousal support, parental influence, academic men's attitude toward women, and academic men's collegial support are crucial for female academics' leadership attainment. Additionally, emotional support (i.e. empathy, active listening and encouragement) is an important factor in professional development (Jairam & Kahl, 2012; Oti, 2013).

Jairam and Kahl (2012) found that individuals reported that their social support changed their perceptions of potential stressors and bolstered the ability to handle stress by providing self-esteem and confidence to degree completion. Conversely, Osman et al. (2014) indicated that individuals with low social support are more likely to experience low levels of physical health and emotional well-being. Therefore, support from family, supervisors and co-workers could help individuals to cope with work-family conflict issues as well as improve employee well-being and job performance (Nomaguchi, 2012).

Research findings suggest that relational factors play a more important role in the receipt of social support in the workplace (McGuire, 2012). According to Calvete and Connor-Smith (2006), perceived social support may increase the use of primary control coping strategies, such as emotional expression, because individuals high in perceived support believe their social network includes someone willing to listen. Sloan et al. (2013) found that the racial composition of the workplace appears to influence the formation of social relationships among workers, indicating that black workers may experience less social isolation when there are other racial minorities in the workplace. However, with increasing racial diversity in the workplace, white workers appear to form fewer friendships with their co-workers.

Employees who perceive good relationships with supervisors and co-workers as well as supervisory support are likely to engage in career development activities, which are critical for subordinate performance and career success (Ariani, 2015). Hence, management should provide supervisor support for career development and to promote organisational career opportunities through designing and implementing a career development plan for employees (Coetzee et al., 2010; Jiang & Klein, 2000).

In the present study, it was suggested that through interactions, professional women are able to access and use resources embedded in relationships to the maximum to enhance their career satisfaction (McFadyen & Cannella, 2004). Therefore, the literature study undertaken strongly suggested the relevance of social capital theory to demonstrate the influence of social support on the career satisfaction of professional women.

In conclusion, a large body of research as illustrated in the foregoing literature has linked organisational and social support to various positive outcomes in the workplace, but there is a paucity of studies that have focused on the factors that influence the career satisfaction of professional women in the South African context. Similarly, exploring the influence of organisational and social support for professional women, particularly in the South African context, is important because women's objective and subjective career success are expected to be influenced by support perceived from the organisation, family and friends or co-workers. It was therefore hypothesised that high levels of perceived organisational and social support would be associated with high levels of career satisfaction.

3.3 EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS OF THE RESEARCH LITERATURE

This chapter has so far conceptualised constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support. The literature review indicated that emotional intelligence is an important psychosocial determinant of job and career success, including adaptation to various areas of life (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Goleman, 1995; Saeedi et al., 2012; Zainal, et al., 2011). Emotional intelligence is conceptualised by the ability-trait (mixed) model of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) which encompasses the art of perception, understanding, utilising and managing emotions effectively in the self and others. Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to perceive themselves as more socially competent, are likely to have better quality of personal relationships and are also viewed by others as more interpersonally sensitive than those lower in emotional intelligence (Matthews et al., 2012).

In addition, individuals with high emotional intelligence seemingly succeed at communicating their ideas, goals, and intentions in interesting and assertive ways, thus making such individuals appear better suited for specific occupational environments (Zeidner et al., 2004). Individuals displaying higher emotional intelligence tend to experience higher levels of life satisfaction, self-acceptance, and self-esteem than individuals low in emotional intelligence (Carmeli et al., 2009). Therefore, emotionally and socially intelligent individuals should be able to manage social, personal and environmental changes successfully by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation, solving problems and making decisions (Bar-On, 2006). However, very little research exists on emotional intelligence as a psychosocial resource in relation to the career development and satisfaction of professional women in the South African context.

Career adaptability is grounded in the career construction theory, which highlights a set of specific vocational behaviours, attitudes and competencies, which individuals utilise to manage and adapt to challenges experienced in the work environment and transitions relating to varying career stages (Savickas, 2012). Research indicates that career adaptability is associated with self-regulatory processes for coping with current and anticipated tasks, and highlights managing novel and adaptive strategies aimed at accomplishing goals (Creed et al., 2009; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Research has shown that career adaptability predicts favourable career outcomes (Chan & Mai, 2015). In their study, Guan et al. (2015) found that career adaptability played a unique role in predicting salary and career satisfaction. Career adaptive individuals are able to manage career-related tasks, deal with job demands and foster a high performing workforce in the organisation (Tladinyane & Van der Merwe, 2016).

Individuals with high career adaptability tend to have the capacity to engage proactively in the process of goal setting, initiating effort and achieving psychological success (Hall and Chandler, 2005). Career adaptability contributes to a positive role of promoting professional competence in individuals' career development (Guo et al., 2014). Thus, individuals with a strong sense of career adaptability tend to cope proactively with difficult environments, develop their career competence and adapt to the work environment so that vocational choices adopted maintain successful and satisfying work lives (Guo et al., 2014; Savickas, 2005). However, there is a paucity of research on career adaptability as a psychosocial resource in relation to the career development and satisfaction of professional women in the South African context.

Similarly, psychosocial career preoccupations are conceptualized in terms of Super's (1953; 1990) life stage theory and Savickas (2005; 2013) career construction theory of career adaptability, which denote individuals' psychological (career self-concept) and social specific (career circumstance and/or role interface) career-related concerns that influence their lives at a certain point in time (Coetzee, 2016). Career preoccupations relate to psychosocial aspects of adaptation, adjustment and redefining the individual's identity or self in preparing for, entering into and participating in work roles and subsequently dealing with career transitions between occupational positions (Coetzee, 2015; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Therefore, change and the concomitant transitions require adaptation and result in specific career concerns that pre-occupy the individual's mind at a particular point in time of his or her career life (Coetzee, 2015).

Limited research is available on the framework of psychosocial career preoccupations proposed by Coetzee (2015). However, research has shown that employees' career preoccupations influence their job and work-related attitudes, such as commitment and

engagement (Coetzee, 2015). In addition, results indicate that career adaptation preoccupations (expectations about one's career outcomes) could largely be attributed to self-efficacious beliefs about one's capital and goal-directedness (Coetzee, 2017). Limited research also exists on the psychosocial career preoccupations resources in relation to the career development and satisfaction of professional women in the South African context.

Self-efficacy is derived from the social cognitive theory and relates to beliefs about one's capacity to engage in a specific task and be able to complete it (Michaelides, 2008). Self-efficacy can be applied to initiate work-related behaviour of employees in the workplace (Adio & Popoola, 2010; Bandura, 2012; Cherian & Jacob, 2013). Individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs set higher career goals, put in extra effort, and pursue career strategies that lead to the attainment of particular goals (Ballout, 2009). In addition, individuals with high levels of self-efficacy experience psychological well-being, they convey confidence in difficult situations, and approach difficult tasks as challenges to be conquered rather than as threats to be avoided (Behjat & Chowdhury, 2012; Dogan et al., 2013). Research indicates that self-efficacy relates positively to salary, subjective career success and performance effectiveness (Day & Allen, 2004). Research further indicates that self-efficacy is positively related to career satisfaction – that is individuals with high self-efficacy also reported high subjective career success than individuals with low self-efficacy (Pachulicz et al., 2008). Thus, self-efficacy is an important motivational construct, which influences individual choices, goals, emotional reactions, coping, effort and persistence (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). However, a paucity of research exists on self-efficacy in relation to the career development and satisfaction of professional women in the South African context.

The socially related constructs of perceived organisational and social support have been conceptualised as social capital, which relate to the goodwill accessible to individuals or groups (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Social resources emanate from the structure and content of an individual's social relationships and their effect flows from the information, influence and solidarity they make available the individual (Hirschi, 2012). POS is conceptualised by the organisation support theory of Eisenberger et al. (2004) which proposes that employees form a general perception regarding the degree to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being. It appears that employees are concerned about how their organisations value their work and to what extent they are valued by the organisation (Latif & Sher, 2012). Literature review suggests that POS may be derived from either the supervisors or the organisation's representatives who control material and symbolic resources (Chen, 2011). Researchers have investigated the role of POS on career success in multiple organisational contexts (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Chen, 2010; Diao & Park, 2011; Kapoutsis

et al., 2012; Latif & Sher, 2012). Pachulicz et al. (2008) found that the more support a person perceived from the organisation, the higher the reported subjective career success.

In addition, research indicates that supportive supervisors affect the willingness for individuals to engage in career development activities which are important for subordinate performance and career success (Chen, 2011). Fair treatment of employees, supervisor support and HR practices were associated with related favourable outcomes to employees (job satisfaction, positive mood) and the organisation (organisational commitment, and lessened withdrawal behaviour) (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Therefore, POS may enhance the individual's perceptions of being valued and supported by the organisation which, in turn, may lead to desired employee attitudes and behaviours, including job performance, trust and subsequently to career satisfaction and valued rewards (Ballout, 2007). However, there is a paucity of research on POS as a resource in relation to the career development and satisfaction of professional women in the South African context.

Lastly, social support is conceptualised by the social support exchange theory of Shumaker and Brownell (1984). Shumaker and Brownell (1984) posits that social support is an interactive process or a trade of resources between two or more individuals with the intention to improve the well-being of the recipient. Research indicates that social support improves employees' well-being and job performance (McGuire, 2012). In addition, Jairam and Kahl (2012) found that social support in the form of friends and family provides positive support to an individual. Further, research shows that individuals' decisions about their careers are socially embedded and that a greater diversity of an individual's network of advisors is related to confidence to overcome career obstacles, including empowerment to make positive career decisions (Higgins, 2001).

Women with higher levels of social support tended to experience success in their careers as opposed to women with lower social support (Jepson, 2010; Nabi, 2000). In addition, Omair (2010) pointed out that families were perceived as generally supportive of women pursuing careers. In literature studies, social support has been found to related to psychological attributes, such as lowering levels of anxiety and depressive symptoms, and promoting areas of physical health and emotional well-being (Osman et al., 2014; Vilchinsky, Dekel, Leibowitz, Reges, Khaskia, & Mosseri, 2011). However, a paucity of research exists on social support as a resource, which relates to the career development and satisfaction for professional women in the South African context.

In summary, the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) were conceptualised and the related theoretical models were explored. The variables influencing these psychosocial attributes and the implications for career development and satisfaction were also discussed.

3.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter addressed the conceptual foundations and related theoretical models of the constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support as a composite set of the psychosocial profile for professional women. The various factors influencing the development of these psychosocial attributes and the implications for career development practices were discussed.

The following literature research aims were achieved in Chapter 3:

Research aim 2: To conceptualise the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction as explained by theoretical models in the literature.

Research aim 3: To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction, and to explain the relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model.

Research aim 4: To conceptualise how individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) influence the manifestation of their psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their perception of career satisfaction.

Research aim 5: To evaluate the implications of a psychosocial profile for the contemporary career development practices of professional women critically.

Chapter 4 presents a discussion of the theoretical integration and constructs of the psychosocial profile for enhancing the career success of professional women. The variables influencing career satisfaction and the implications for career development and satisfaction will also be discussed.

CHAPTER 4: THEORETICAL INTEGRATION: TOWARDS CONSTRUCTING A PSYCHOSOCIAL PROFILE FOR ENHANCING THE CAREER SUCCESS OF PROFESSIONAL WOMEN

The previous chapter focused on the theoretical framework of the conceptualisation of the psychosocial attributes, namely emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support, and career satisfaction. Chapter 4 aims to provide the theoretical integration and construct the psychosocial profile for enhancing the career success of professional women. The variables influencing career satisfaction and the implications for career development and career success will also be discussed.

The aim with this chapter is to conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of the psychosocial profile and career satisfaction, and to explain the relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model. This is congruent with steps 3 to 5 of phase 1 of the research method, as identified in Chapter 1 of this study (see section 1.8.1).

4.1 INTEGRATION OF PSYCHOSOCIAL CONSTRUCTS IN RELATION TO CAREER SATISFACTION

The central hypothesis (see section 1.3.1 in Chapter 1) of this research stated that individuals' emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support, and career satisfaction constitute an overall psychosocial profile that may be used to inform the contemporary career development practices of professional women. Literature suggests that these variables are significant psychosocial attributes for effective career decision-making and adaptive functioning (Brown et al., 2003; Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Eisenberger et al., 2004; Lakey, 2007; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Schutte et al., 2009). According to Coetzee and Harry (2014), these psychosocial attributes are flexible self-regulatory cognitive-affective meta-capacities that can be developed or affirmed through training, coaching and counselling interventions.

As illustrated in Figure 4.1, it was further proposed that individuals' psychosocial profile would contribute significantly to the career satisfaction of professional women. In the present study, career satisfaction is viewed as an aspect of individuals' subjective career success. The interaction between psychological attributes and social perceptions significantly increase career satisfaction because of the strengths embedded in various elements that constitute the overall psychosocial profile. Moreover, women from different ages and races, their marital

status, number of children, job levels, total monthly income and education groups may have different levels of psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy, psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support), and different experiences of career satisfaction.

Career success includes intrinsic protean values of freedom and self-growth and subjective career objectives in terms of personal accomplishment, a sense of fulfilment and career satisfaction, whereas the extrinsic outcomes relate to visible indicators which include salary income progression, work experience and promotions (Arthur et al., 2005; Chin & Rasdi, 2014; Gu & Su, 2016). There is some interdependence between the two aspects of career success, in that an individual's success in one aspect influences further enactment of successes when changes are experienced (for example, promotion may further enact career satisfaction) (Arthur et al., 2005; Baruch & Quick, 2007; Shahibudin, 2015). The core focus of the present study was subjective career success as measured by career satisfaction (i.e., achievement in career, meeting overall career goals and income, goal advancement and development of new skills) (Greenhaus et al., 1990).

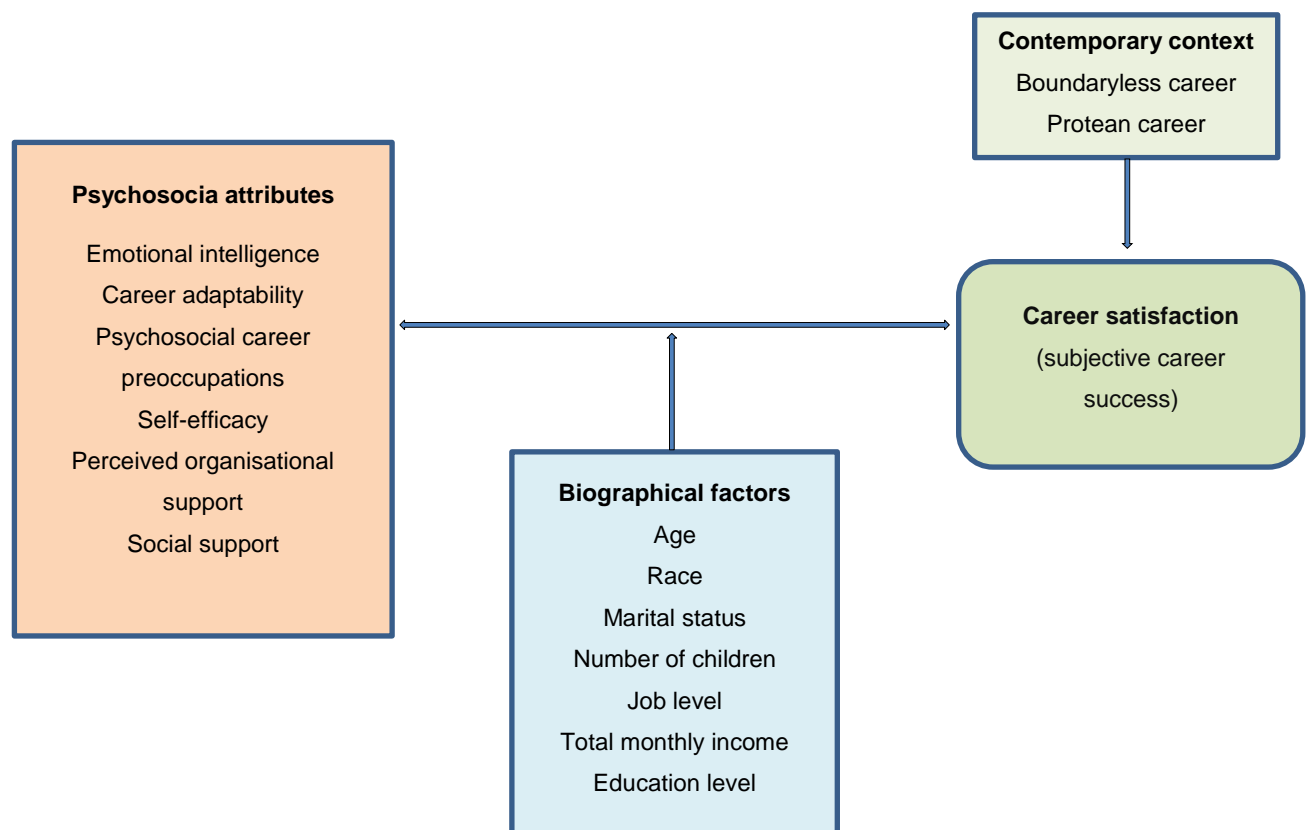


Figure 4. 1: The psychosocial profile elements and context for enhancing the career satisfaction of professional women

Women's perceptions of career success are influenced by their experiences of careers in volatile employment environments and their career development reflects contemporary protean career principles (i.e., freedom, growth and subjective career success) (Hall & Chandler, 2005). As discussed earlier (see section 2.1.1.2 in Chapter 2), the protean career is one of the most novel approaches to contemporary careers and is increasingly being adopted at the individual level to maximise career success (Baruch & Quick, 2007; Böhmer & Schinnenburg, 2016; Chin & Rasdi, 2014; Hall, 2004). A contemporary protean career orientation assumes that individuals take responsibility for their career choices and career opportunities, and prompts individuals to be more proactive in taking charge of their career development and success rather than relying on the organisation (Hall, 2004; Jackson & Wilton, 2016).

Other than the traditional career, the protean career signifies an internally driven perspective where the individuals, rather than their employing organisations, become the initiators in developing their careers to achieve a more satisfying level of career success (Enache et al., 2011; Jackson & Wilton, 2016). The boundaryless career explains the individual's physical and psychological mobility between occupations and organisations, and also increases the individual's opportunities to develop a sense of self-identity and accumulate employability skills that are transferable beyond the current organisation (Colakoglu, 2011; Jackson & Wilton, 2016; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Segers et al. (2008) have found that women experience freedom to engage in psychological mobility since they are less obligated to conform to traditional work roles than their male counterparts. Hence, women could display protean attitudes driven by inner directed career choices, embrace a boundaryless mind-set and yet still rely on their organisations to develop and nurture their careers (Briscoe et al., 2006).

The protean career development indicates the interaction between the individual's self-directedness, core values of freedom and self-growth, and defines career success in terms of personal accomplishment, a sense of self-fulfillment and subjective career success (Chin & Rasdi, 2014; Hall, 2004). Similarly, the kaleidoscope career model (KCM) demonstrates how women's career decisions are influenced by a need for work-life balance, authenticity, such as valuing relationships and doing good for others, and challenge through developing employability skills across life-career stages (Cabrera, 2009).

Simultaneously, the ecological perspective acknowledges multiple influences that shape women's career experiences and aims to create an optimal person-environment interaction that may help women to develop their careers (Cook et al., 2005). The ecological model aims to achieve an optimal match and fit between the individual and organisational needs, whereas

the kaleidoscope career model (KCM) describes how women make career decisions based on the shifting importance of intrinsic needs for challenge, balance and authenticity across life career stages.

Women value relationships and connectedness with others to such an extent that they often sacrifice their career needs for others and carefully evaluate the potential impact of their career decisions on the needs of significant others (Cabrera, 2009). Thus, the protean career is viewed as a necessary career orientation which women opt for to self-direct their careers, and it lets them achieve subjective career objectives by allowing them to satisfy both work and non-work responsibilities as well as fulfil their needs for authenticity (Cabrera, 2009; Hall, 2004). A study by Cabrera (2009) found that women who had adopted a protean career were driven to do so to satisfy their need for work-life balance. Likewise, Crowley-Henry and Weir (2007) found that a protean career attitude demonstrated how women had the proven capability of adapting their professional roles over time due to circumstances. Reitman and Schneer (2003) found that women on a protean career path were able to balance work and family roles.

Although the protean career advocates self-regulatory functioning, greater independence and flexibility, the ecological model advocates that there will be external factors or multiple influences which could impede or enhance the ability to engage in protean behaviours (Chin & Rasdi, 2014; Cook et al., 2005). Similar to protean career core values of self-directedness, freedom and self-growth, the KCM advocates internal mechanisms which influence women's approach to careers and reflects unique career patterns to achieve a best fit that matches life circumstances and career needs (Chin & Rasdi, 2014; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). It appears that women are likely to be driven towards adopting protean career orientations in order to satisfy their personal values of challenge, balance and authenticity while simultaneously accommodating multiple interactional factors within the environment. Therefore, organisational support programmes such as professional networks for career information and support, increased workplace and career flexibility, mentoring and an employability culture are important to encourage women in career development and skills enhancement for future career decisions and career path (Cabrera, 2009; Chin & Rasdi, 2014).

As indicated in Figure 4.1, the psychosocial profile elements constitute psychological and social resources. In this study, perceived organisational support (POS) and social support are seen as important social support mechanisms or resources for the careers of women. POS depends on individuals' attributions concerning the organisation and should be enhanced to the extent that individuals are more likely to access career opportunities offered by the organisation and take actions to achieve career goals (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011;

Kurtessis et al., 2015). Organisational contexts serve to facilitate, shape or restrict individuals' career paths (Chin & Rasdi, 2014). According to Ballout (2007), a supportive organisational environment has a positive effect on the individual's willingness to engage in career development activities. Wang (2009) has found that supervisors build a supportive work environment and offer additional support to help professional women balance both family responsibilities and career progression.

Social support is a helpful resource that could meet an individual's urgent needs and is provided for by a support network of others, such as family, friends, co-workers and significant others (Kostova et al., 2015). Social support enhances the individual's sense of self, and it increases a sense of control, belonging, competence and confidence in work and non-work roles (Thoits, 2011). Ahmed and Carrim (2016) have found that the emotional support derived from husbands assists the career progression of women. A study by Oti (2013) has found that social support predicts the career growth and leadership of female academics. Schieman (2006) indicates that being in occupations with a higher proportion of women is likely to expose women to workplace environments that are beneficial to socioemotional bonds and co-worker support. Nabi (2001) has found that personal support to be strongly related to women's subjective career success. According to Wang (2009), social capital is leveraged in the workplace and women do not always have equitable access to social capital. Therefore, organisations should create a workplace that reinforces equal opportunities for career development and facilitates women's career progression (Wang, 2009).

In the present study, the ecological model was used to explain the influence of POS and social support on the psychological attributes of women, and how the psychological attributes affected the career satisfaction of women. The ecological perspective suggests that human behaviour is a result of the continuing dynamic interaction between the person, multiple relationships and the environment (Cook et al., 2002). According to Cook et al. (2002), women have a strong orientation toward social relationships. Hence, the centrality of social relationships and perceived support from multiple relationships determine how women make career decisions and shape their career development and advancement (Cook et al., 2005; Greenhaus & Ten Brummelhuis, 2013). POS and social support create support structures and incorporate different supportive mechanisms which enable individuals to engage in various career paths and opportunities for career development (Chen, 2010). Osca, Urien, González-Camino, Martínez-Pérez and Martínez-Pérez (2005) indicated the buffering effect of social support on subjective job satisfaction. Jiang and Klein (2000) found that employees find more satisfaction with their careers when supervisor support is prominent and an adequate range of opportunities that satisfy career desires exist within the organisation. Therefore, management

should provide supervisor support for career development and to promote organisational career opportunities through designing and implementing a career development plan for employees (Coetzee et al., 2010; Jiang & Klein, 2000).

In the present study, POS and social support mediated the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction; thus, organisational interventions are likely to enhance the career satisfaction of women.

As shown in Figure 4.1, this study focuses on the constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy. These constructs are regarded as crucial psychosocial meta-capacities for successful adaptation in various life and career domains (Coetzee & Harry, 2014). In the present study, these constructs may increase the career success (satisfaction) of professional women.

Emotional intelligence involves a set of interrelated skills which enable people to perceive, appraise and express emotions in constructing reality from emotional stimuli for the purpose of managing life in adaptive ways (Jiang, 2016; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Emotional intelligence influences people's career decision-making and has an effect on how people plan for career development choices (Jiang, 2016). Mayer, Oosthuizen and Surtee (2017) have found that emotional self-awareness is strongly valued by female leaders to the extent that they are aware of how to express their feelings, thoughts and beliefs in a constructive manner. The construct of career adaptability includes a set of self-regulatory skills that individuals may draw upon to cope with current and future career developmental tasks, as well as persevere regardless of obstacles in attaining the desired career outcomes (Coetzee & Harry, 2014). The research findings by Coetzee and Harry (2014) indicate that individuals who are better able to manage their emotions should be able to experience career adaptability.

Harry (2017) has found that emotional intelligence independently predicts career adaptability skills. Coetzee and Harry (2014) suggest that a well-developed emotional intelligence resource provides the energy, self-regulatory capacity and readiness for displaying positive career adaptability capacities, the willingness to plan one's future and the way to achieve one's goals. Although the research literature provides evidence of the relationship between people's emotional intelligence and their career adaptability (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Harry, 2017), there seems to be a paucity of research regarding the relationship between people's emotional intelligence and their career adaptability and how they relate to the career satisfaction of women in the South African career development setting. In this regard, research on the

relationship dynamics among these variables could make an important contribution to the career development practices aimed at enhancing career success (satisfaction) experiences of professional women in the South African context.

Psychosocial career preoccupations give rise to specific career concerns that preoccupy the minds of people at a particular point in time of their career life stages (Coetzee, 2015). These preoccupations stem from the developmental tasks people experience at different stages of the lifecycle, but appear to be non-age related (Coetzee, 2016). Career preoccupations flag discontent about career development needs and if addressed, help to fulfil career needs of women, which may result in career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2016; Olusola, Olubola, & Akintayo, 2012). Various life or career-related transitional needs could give rise to career preoccupations, which also may arise from career contexts (Coetzee, 2016; Maree, 2016). All women entering a career could have unique career preoccupations (establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations) that best resemble their life circumstances and needs (Coetzee, 2015; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006). A study by Coetzee (2015) indicated associations between employees' need for career growth and advancement opportunities, challenging work, learning, development and applying new knowledge and skills (career establishment preoccupations) and their organisational commitment in the workplace.

Coetzee (2017) found that career adaptation preoccupations (i.e., expectations about one's career outcomes) could mostly be ascribed to efficacy beliefs about the individual's social capital and goal-directedness. Likewise, Coetzee (2016) showed that work/life adjustment preoccupations (i.e., concerns about settling down, reducing one's workload and achieving greater balance between one's work and personal life) were instrumental in explaining proactive career behaviours. The KCM perspective further helps to understand the needs and unique career patterns of women (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). Similar to the career preoccupations model (Coetzee, 2015), the KCM provides three parameters or needs (authenticity, balance and challenge), which are always present and ever interacting but take on different levels of importance or intensity in relation to a woman's life occurrences at a specific point to influence her career decisions (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008).

August (2011) found that the meanings of challenge (control and autonomy while learning and growing) were notably more consistent with those found in younger women, whereas older women demonstrated concerns for authenticity (such as taking better care of oneself, self-acceptance, finding deeper levels of meaning of work and negotiating end-of-life issues). Likewise, Tajlili (2014) found that the KCM model provided a way to infuse intentionality in younger women's career decision-making, as well as a concern for challenge, generation of

personal and career goals and clarification of authentic selves in personal and work domains. Therefore, the KCM provides a rationale to initiate programmes that recognise the unique career needs of women and also provide career opportunities that could contribute to the career development and advancement of women (Sharf, 2014).

Self-efficacy is an important additional psychological resource that supports career success (satisfaction) of women. The self-efficacy construct is a major component of the social cognitive theory (SCT) and is the foundation of human agency (Bandura, 2004). The notion of human agency towards human development, adaptation and change are key components in SCT (Bandura, 2001a, 2006). It was intended that this viewpoint would help explain choices of career goals, development and the career satisfaction of professional women (Lent & Brown, 2006). People play a part in contributing to their life circumstances; hence, unless they believe they can produce a desired outcome, they have little motivation to act or to persevere during difficult circumstances (Bandura, 2001a).

Chen (2002) suggests that a person's power to act is an exercise of human agency, which is embedded in a variety of the individual's characteristics – that is motivation, behaviour or performance. Therefore, regardless of family responsibilities and unequal practices in organisations, women could proactively identify opportunities and formulate career development goals aimed at enhancing subjective work experiences and career satisfaction (Cabrera, 2007; Chinyamurindi, 2016). The KCM perspective is supportive of this view, since the model helps women to intentionally make career choices, decisions, action plans and proactive commitments that best resemble their life circumstances and unique career needs (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008; Tajlili, 2014). Bandura (2001a) suggests that individuals are often inducted into new life trajectories (marriage, children, careers), and there is more people can do deliberately to exercise some measure of control over their self-development and life circumstances.

Agentic management raises issues of freedom and determinism to navigate through complex environments of ambiguity and unpredictability (Bandura, 2008). According to this view, Bandura (2008) suggests a change that requires adaptive flexibility in multiple goals such as women have, and the freedom that is conceived proactively to exercise self-influence in the service of chosen goals and desired outcomes (e.g. career satisfaction). Furthermore, confidence in one's ability to manage one's own and others' emotions could determine as to whether an individual perceives others as offering support in advancing career goals (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011). Arguably, social support from family is suggested to be an important factor that affects young adults' career exploration and career adaptability (Tian & Fan, 2014).

Research findings reported that perceived social support was associated with career development outcomes and was also a significant predictor of career adaptability (Hirschi, 2009; Metheny & McWhirter, 2013; Tian & Fan, 2014). Likewise, Karatepe and Olugbade (2017) found that work social support boosts career adaptability and career satisfaction.

Table 4.1 illustrates the constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support as psychosocial attributes that may enhance the subjective work experiences and career satisfaction (subjective career success) of women. When viewed from a social cognitive perspective, individuals as human agents develop self-regulatory psychological resources which generate a wider range of options to expand freedom of action and more success in realising a desired future than in the case of those with less developed resources (Bandura, 2006). Therefore, emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy resources may support confidence in dealing with career preoccupations or concerns and elicit supportive mechanisms needed for career development and advancement aimed at enhancing subjective work experiences and career satisfaction.

In summary, the research assumed that if the theoretical psychosocial profile elements and their relation to career satisfaction could be proven empirically and the relationship dynamics among the profile elements be uncovered empirically, the new insights could contribute to career development interventions for enhancing the career success of women. Career counsellors should be aware of how the mental state (career concerns at a particular point of careers) of women influence their career self-development activities and experiences of career satisfaction. In addition, career counsellors could assist women in exploring the magnitude of their career preoccupations and efficacy beliefs, and how to use their career adaptability skills to exercise some measure of control over their work and non-work circumstances, including social and emotional competencies to perceive others as offering support in advancing career goals and success.

Organisations and human resource (HR) professionals should be aware of the usefulness of the psychosocial profile and the potential influence of the contemporary career model which advocates for a boundaryless mindset, protean career orientations and internal mechanisms which influence women's approach to careers and reflects unique career patterns and career needs. Furthermore, organisations and HR professionals should be aware of the usefulness of the psychosocial profile as a powerful tool for career counselling and how active support from senior management and social networks is essential to a comprehensive and sustainable career development process. This could assist organisations and HR professionals in planning

and developing career development practices aimed at enhancing the career satisfaction of women.

Table 4.1

Psychosocial Profile Elements (Emotional Intelligence, Career Adaptability, Psychosocial Career Preoccupations, Self-efficacy, Perceived Organisational and Social Support) for Professional Women to Enhance Career Satisfaction

Elements of the psychosocial profile							Elements of career success
	Emotional intelligence	Career adaptability	Psychosocial career preoccupations	Self-efficacy	Perceived organisational support (POS)	Social support	Career success (career satisfaction)
Definition	Mayer and Salovey (1997); Mayer et al. (2008)	Savickas (2005)	Coetzee (2014b)	Michaelides (2008)	Eisenberger et al. (1986)	Albrecht and Adelman (1987)	Judge et al. (1995)
	Emotional intelligence is defined as a combination of abilities to perceive and express emotion correctly, the ability to access and regulate feelings with understanding and to engage in emotional knowledge and problem solving that help to pay attention to and regulate emotions in order to benefit oneself and others (Mayer et al., 2008).	Career adaptability is defined as behaviours, attitudes and competencies individuals use to manage and adapt to challenges experienced and transitions relating to varying career stages	Psychosocial career preoccupations refer to individuals' preoccupations with specific career-related concerns associated with the implementation of the career self-concept, which influence their lives at a certain point in time	Self-efficacy relates to an individual's belief about his or her ability to engage in a specific task and to be able to complete it	POS is defined as employees' perception about the degree to which the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being	Social support is defined as verbal and nonverbal communication between the receivers and provider of information to reduce uncertainty about the situation, the self, the other or the relationship for the purpose of enhancing a perception of personal control in one's life experience	Career success is defined as the positive psychological or work-related outcomes or achievements an individual will have accumulated as an outcome of her work experiences
Dimensions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perception of emotions • Managing own emotions • Managing others' emotions • Utilisation of emotions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Career concern • Career curiosity • Career control • Career confidence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Career establishment preoccupations • Career adaptation preoccupations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Magnitude • Strength • Generality 	Overall POS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family • Friends • Significant others 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Objective (extrinsic) experiences

Elements of the psychosocial profile							Elements of career success
Influencing variables	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work/life adjustment preoccupations 						<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subjective (intrinsic) experiences (The present study focused on career satisfaction as an expression of subjective career success)
	Age, race and education level	Age, race, marital status, and education level	Age, race career stages, and education level	Age, race, marital status, and education level.	Age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education.	Age and marital status.	Race and marital status.
	Assessing emotions scale (AES) (Schutte et al., 2009)	Career adaptabilities scale (CAAS) (Savickas, 2012)	Psychosocial career preoccupations scale (PCPS) (Coetzee, 2014b)	New general self-efficacy (NGSE) scale (Chen et al., 2001)	Survey of perceived organisational support (SPOS) (Eisenberger & Huntington, 1986)	Multidimensional scale of perceived social support (MSPSS) (Zimet et al., 1988)	Career satisfaction scale (CSS) (Greenhaus et al., 1990)
	Career development and satisfaction, self-acceptance, subjective well-being, job performance	Career counselling and development, professional well-being, proactive personality, career optimism, goal orientation, career confidence, career retention	Career management and development, career self-expression, adaptation to changing life contexts, employability, work/life balance, role clarity	Self-motivation, self-confidence, positive psychological well-being, perseverance, goal accomplishment, career commitment	Career development, increased commitment, loyalty and performance, psychological well-being, career satisfaction, retention of professional women	Psychosocial well-being, support and professional development, a sense of competence and confidence, positive career decisions, role competence	Career development, pay progression and promotion opportunities, career satisfaction and happiness, personal meaning (receiving feedback, recognition), adding value to organisation, embracing new opportunities and investment in community, talent retention

4.2 THE INFLUENCE OF PERSON-CENTERED VARIABLES ON PSYCHOSOCIAL ATTRIBUTES AND CAREER SATISFACTION

The present research adopted a two-pronged approach to investigating the relationship between individuals' psychosocial attributes and perceptions and their career satisfaction. Firstly, a variable-centred approach was to explore the manifestation of psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy, psychosocial career preoccupations) and social perceptions (perceived organisational and social support) in relation to career satisfaction among a sample of professional women. Secondly, it was assumed that individuals should be treated in a holistic manner, thus allowing for the possibility that the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction might be experienced differently by members of the same socio-demographic subgroups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education groups), and might have different implications for women's career development and well-being in combination than they do individually. In this regard, the research also adopted a person-centred approach to complement the variable-centred approach. In the next section, the relationship between individuals' socio-demographic characteristics and their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction are discussed.

According to Lent et al. (1994), psychosocial processes may help dictate the development of career-related efficacy and outcome expectations in individuals of particular gender or ethnic/racial groups. For example, Lent et al. (1994) suggest that educational access matters could influence the quality and types of learning experiences one receives, and some cultures may selectively reinforce specific occupationally relevant activities. In accordance with this view, evidence supports the idea that childhood socialisation experiences help to shape individuals' career attainment and thus contribute to gender segregation in the labour market (Lawson, Crouter & McHale, 2015). Research findings by Lawson et al. (2015) indicate the following:

- Time spent by both mothers and fathers with sons during childhood predicted young men holding more gender-type jobs.
- By contrast, young women who spent more time with their fathers attained less gender-typed occupations.
- Seemingly, both boys and girls who spent more time with their fathers attained more male-typed occupations in adulthood.

According to Combs (2003), although women have progressed in levelling their representation in organisations, the race and gender career development opportunities seem to remain disproportionate. Research findings indicate that couples still divide their family responsibilities according to traditional gender roles that expect women to interrupt their careers for family reasons (Evers & Sieverding, 2013). In addition, Evers and Sieverding (2013) suggest that for women, the number of children was significantly and positively related to career interruptions whereas for men the number of children was significantly but negatively related to career interruptions. Likewise, a study by Miles (2013) indicated that women leave the workforce because they cannot balance home and work responsibilities.

According to Eith, Stummer and Schusterschitz (2011), men experience higher success at work and have more career ambitions than women. Research findings indicate that current salary and length of marriage positively affect career satisfaction (Amdurer et al., 2014). In addition, length of marriage suggests stability at home, which in turn, allows for energy and attention to be devoted at work and to one's career, whereas, having many children might put a strain on an individual's ability to engage in work (Amdurer et al., 2014).

The research findings of Payne, Blackwell and Collins (2010) indicate that graduates who felt they received adequate training in their area of expertise were likely to report satisfaction with their careers. Ng et al. (2005) found that the relationship between education and salary were stronger for women than for men, which perhaps illustrates that for women to succeed in the career contest, they had to work harder than men. Likewise, a study among high-flyer women academics by Ismail et al. (2005) found post-graduate experience of master's and doctoral qualifications to be the most important events in promotion to professorship. Differences in age with regard to success perceptions at work could not be identified (Eith et al., 2011). Table 4.2 provides the core conclusions regarding the influence of person-centred variables on psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction.

Table 4.2

Summary of Variables Influencing Psychosocial Attribute and Career Satisfaction

Psychosocial attributes	Core conclusions regarding influence of person-centred variables	Reference
Emotional intelligence	Age, race and education level	Pillay et al. (2013) El Badawy and Magdy, (2015)
Career adaptability	Age, race, marital status and education	Amdurer et al. (2014) O'Connell et al. (2008) Ferreira (2012) Zacher (2014b) Barto et al. (2015) Coetzee and Stoltz (2015)
Psychosocial career preoccupations	Age, career stages and education level	Lynn et al. (1996) Smart (1998) Ismail et al. (2005) O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) Sturges (1999) Coetzee (2017)
Self-efficacy	Age, race and marital status	Abele and Spurk (2009) Amatucci and Crawley (2011) Zeldin et al. (2008)
POS	Age and marital status	Kaur (2017) Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009)
Social support	Age, race and marital status	Khurshid and Anjum (2012) Knoll and Schwarzer (2002) McPherson et al. (2006) Nomaguchi (2012) Sloan et al. (2013)
Career satisfaction	Human capital, personality, organisational factors, demographic factors	Ballout (2007) Judge et al. (1995) Pachulicz et al. (2008) Punnett et al. (2009) Koekemoer (2014) Coetzee et al. (2010) Du Toit and Coetzee (2012) Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2007) Kapoutsis et al. (2012) Seibert et al. (20010) Evers and Sieverding (2013)

4.3 TOWARD TESTING A HYPOTHETICAL THEORETICAL PSYCHOSOCIAL PROFILE OF PROFESSIONAL WOMEN

Although numerous studies point to various reasons for career satisfaction in the workplace, there seems to be a particular lack of research on psychosocial attributes that influence individuals' subjective work experiences in the South African organisational context (Obschonka, Silbereisen, & Wasilewski, 2012; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). Moreover, previous research has focused on various psychosocial attributes individually or in relation to other variables (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012; Ferreira, 2012; Khurshid & Anjum, 2012; Saeedi et al., 2012; Thoits, 2011; Zainal et al., 2011). Furthermore, there seems to be a paucity of research on career development and satisfaction among professional women

in the South African organisational context. Therefore, research on the relationships between these variables could make an important contribution to literature regarding the career development and satisfaction of professional women in a diverse South African context.

The following research hypotheses were formulated to achieve the empirical objectives of the study and to meet the criteria for the formulation of the hypotheses:

H1: There are statistically significant interrelationships between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context.

H2: Individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predict their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction.

H3: Psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) as a composite set of latent independent variables are significantly related to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

H4: Individuals' social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.

H5: The hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile has a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model as based on the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors.

H6: There is a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction.

H7: Individuals' from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differ significantly regarding their

psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction.

Figure 4.2 depicts the research hypotheses, theoretical model and the empirical approach for the present study. The present research operationalised objective career success as job level, total monthly income and education level. Subjective career success was operationalised as career satisfaction, which measured subjective perceptions, namely satisfaction with the level of achievement of career goals, improvement and skills development as well as income and job-level expectations (Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012; Heslin, 2005). However, in the present study, income and job level were objective career success measures, which were operationalised as biographical characteristics. Hypotheses 1 to 7 concerned the role of the predictors, biographical groups (age, race, and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) in terms of the career satisfaction levels of professional women.

The present study predicted that the psychological attributes constructs of emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 2009), career adaptability (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), psychosocial career preoccupations (Coetzee, 2014b), self-efficacy (Chen et al., 2001) and social perceptions, POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and social support (Zimet et al., 1988) and objective career success measures (job level, total monthly income and education) relate to career satisfaction as a measure of subjective career success. Although job level and total monthly income are measured as biographical characteristics in relative terms, qualitative interviews would have pointed out whether they were indeed conceptualised as objective measures of career success since career success is viewed as an elusive concept with which to work (Gunz et al., 2011; Heslin, 2005). Hence, in the present study, only career satisfaction levels were measured as a form of subjective career success.

Derived from previous research (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Goleman, 1995; Saeedi et al., 2012), the present study predicted that emotional intelligence positively relates to career success measures. Similarly, career adaptability (O'Connell et al., 2008; Ohme & Zacher, 2015; Zacher, 2014a) was predicted to relate positively to career success measures. In addition, psychosocial career preoccupations (Coetzee, 2015; Ismail et al., 2005; Lynn et al., 1996) and self-efficacy (Bandura, 2012; Lunenburg, 2011; Pachulicz et al., 2008) were expected to relate positively to career success measures. Furthermore, derived from findings in social perceptions, the present study predicted that perceived organisational support (Ballout, 2007;

De Vos et al., 2011; Narang & Singh, 2011) and social support (Alder & Kwon, 2009; McFadyen & Cannella, 2004; Oti, 2013) positively relate to career success measures. Finally, as derived from previous literature (Doubell & Struwig, 2014; Evers & Sieverding, 2013; Kirai & Mukulu, 2012; Pachulicz et al., 2008; Punnett et al., 2009) proposing biographical factors that aid or hinder women's career advancement and career aspirations for success, this study only included participants who were professional women from the biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) to predict their moderating influence on the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction.

Therefore, the present research expected to find that professional women with higher levels of psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) would experience higher levels of career satisfaction than those with lower levels of psychosocial attributes. In addition, professional women from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children job level, total monthly income and education level) would differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes and their career satisfaction.

As previous research on professional women and the psychosocial factors discussed above has been limited, the outcome expectations of the hypothesised model are intended to be utilised by career counsellors and HR practitioners to develop career strategies to enhance the career satisfaction of professional women.

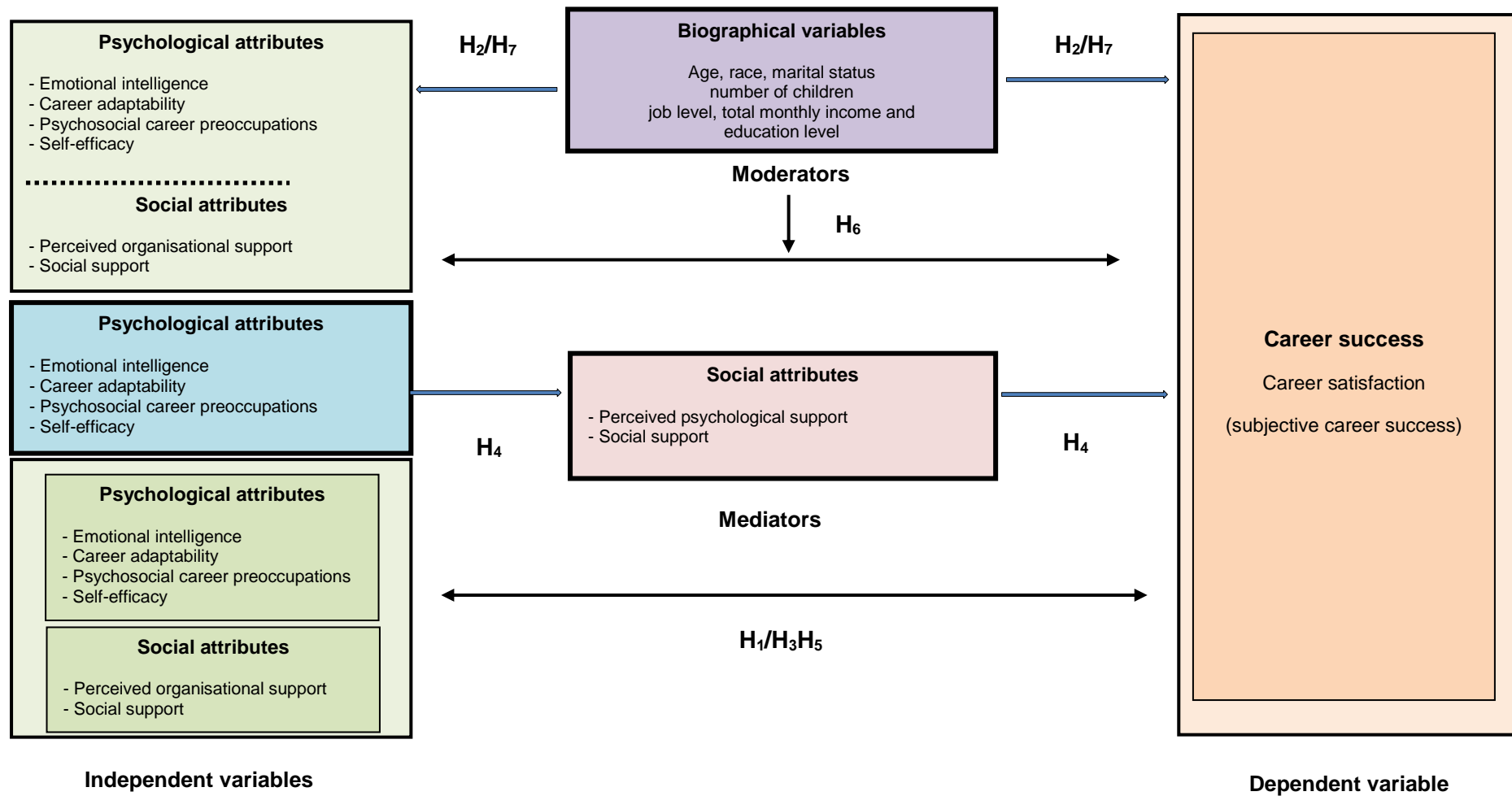


Figure 4.2: The hypothetical theoretical psychosocial profile in relation to the career satisfaction of professional women

Table 4.3 further illustrates the core implications psychosocial profile for career development practices.

Table 4.3

The Psychosocial Profile's Core Implications for Career Development Practices

Psychosocial attributes	Implications for career development practices
Emotional intelligence	Training and education, life satisfaction, self-acceptance, subjective well-being, job performance
Career adaptability	Career counselling and development, professional well-being, proactive personality, career optimism, goal orientation, career confidence, career retention, vocational guidance, career education and counselling
Psychosocial career preoccupations	Career management and development, career self-expression, adaptation to changing life contexts, employability, work/life- balance, role clarity
Self-efficacy	Self-motivation, self-confidence, positive psychological well-being, perseverance, goal accomplishment, career commitment
Perceived organisational support	Career development, increased commitment, loyalty and performance, psychological well-being, career satisfaction, retention of professional women
Social support	Emotional and instrumental support, social networks, initial and ongoing organisational socialisation, support and professional development, a sense of competence and confidence, positive career decisions, role competence
Career satisfaction	Career development, pay progression and promotion opportunities, career satisfaction and happiness, personal meaning (receiving feedback, recognition), adding value to organisation, embracing new opportunities and investment in community, talent retention

In summary, Table 4.3 provides the implications for the career development practices of professional women. Theoretically, psychosocial attributes or resources and career satisfaction can be increased or enhanced through relevant career development programmes and strategies.

Resources refer to personal attributes, conditions, energies or objects which an individual values and which serve as a means to attain desired outcomes (Hobfoll, 1989; Xu et al., 2017). Hobfoll (1989) coined the conservation of resources theory (COR), which proposes that individuals aim to preserve, protect and improve resources; thus, they could feel threatened by the potential or actual loss of these valued resources. According to Hobfoll, Freedy, Lane and Geller (1990), resource conservation is made possible by possessing a strong resource pool such that resource strength further stimulates resource increase and security. Additionally,

Taylor and Broffman (2011) suggest that psychological and social resources are mutually or reciprocally related. Hence, success is likely if individuals seek to develop and preserve personal and social resources that could increase the likelihood of strengthening and preventing loss of such resources.

In the present study, psychological attributes or resources (i.e. emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) are mutually or reciprocally related in achieving career satisfaction. For instance, psychosocial career preoccupations could either deplete or stimulate other resources. Career preoccupations could increase or decrease levels of emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy, which in turn, could positively or negatively affect career satisfaction

Likewise, social resources (perceived organisational and social support) provide a major reservoir for psychological resources (Hobfoll et al., 1990). However, psychological resources could be depleted in the process of juggling between both work or career and family roles, which in turn, could lead to dissatisfaction with careers (Hobfoll et al., 1990; Innstrand, Langballe, Espnes, Falkum, & Aasland, 2008). In the present study, perceived organisational and social support are treated as resources that could mediate the relationship between the psychological resources and career satisfaction.

Emotional intelligence plays a significant role in job opportunities, job skills, required skills and talents, and career success (Mousavi et al., 2012). Findings by Bar-On et al. (2005) suggest that higher performers in the workplace have significantly higher emotional-social intelligence than lower performers. According to Matthews et al. (2012), individuals high in emotional intelligence tend to perceive themselves as more socially competent, they are likely to have personal relationships of better quality and are also viewed by others as more interpersonally sensitive than those lower in emotional intelligence. Research studies suggest that emotional intelligence is capable of being enhanced or developed through relevant training and educational methods designed to improve emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour over a relatively short period of time (Bar-On, 2010; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004; Prentice & King, 2013; Schutte et al., 2013). Emotional intelligence training can thus improve understanding of one's own emotions or the emotions of others to engage in emotionally and socially intelligent behaviours that facilitate career decision-making, and in turn, promote career progression (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011).

Career adaptability is an important psychosocial resource for employees in times of unpredictable, diverse and global careers (Zacher, 2014b). Previous research showed that

daily career adaptability and daily confidence positively predicted daily task and career performance, as well as daily job and career satisfaction (Zacher, 2015). A study by O'Connell et al. (2008) found adaptability to be a key competency for career success. More specifically, Guan et al. (2015) indicated that, among their participants, career adaptability played a unique role in predicting salary and career satisfaction. In addition, individuals with a strong sense of career adaptability tend to cope proactively with difficult environments and to develop their career competencies (Guo et al., 2014). These findings suggest that assessment of individual adaptability competencies is an important component of career counselling, as it enables practitioners to evaluate career-related needs and design interventions aimed at promoting successful adjustment to changing work conditions (Tolentino et al., 2014). Hence, increasing an individual's career adaptability competencies is a key goal to career counselling and development (Öncel, 2014; Savickas, 2006).

Limited research is available on the framework of psychosocial career preoccupations proposed by Coetzee (2015). However, research has shown that employees' career preoccupations influence their job- and work-related attitudes, such as commitment and engagement (Coetzee, 2015). The findings suggest that HR practitioners and career counsellors need to take cognisance of how the career environment influences employee needs and concerns (Coetzee, 2015). Career development opportunities aimed at lowering career preoccupation issues during all career stages are likely to enhance the career satisfaction of professional women (Brown et al., 2012; Coetzee, 2017). Hence, HR practices should focus on providing support for personal growth and development, advancing in one's career, employability, achieving work-life balance and employment sustenance (Coetzee, 2015).

Self-efficacy can be applied for work-related performance in terms of motivating employees to achieve their career goals, including organisational performance (Adio & Popoola, 2010; Bandura, 2012; Cherian & Jacob, 2013). In addition, high self-efficacy helps employees collect relevant information, make sound decisions and take appropriate actions, more especially when under pressure (Adio & Popoola, 2010). Strong self-efficacy beliefs influence the tasks employees choose to learn, and increase motivation needed for persistence and devotion to career and occupational goals (Lunenburg, 2011; Zeldin et al., 2008). Individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs set high career goals, put in more effort and pursue career strategies that lead to the attainment of those goals (Ballout, 2009; Xu et al., 2017). Therefore, career counsellors could boost clients' beliefs that they can successfully deal with challenges and turn their career goals into reality by applying useful strategies and principles used in training self-efficacy,

which allows for mastery experiences, provides successful role models and utilises social persuasion (Zacher, 2014a).

POS may enhance employees' perceptions of being valued and supported by the organisation, which in turn, may lead to desired employee attitudes and behaviours such as job performance, trust and subsequently to career satisfaction and valued rewards (Ballout, 2007). Fairness of treatment, supervisor support and HR practices are viewed as antecedents that increase POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). For instance, Chen (2011) found that supportive supervisors affect the willingness of subordinates to engage in career development activities that are important for job performance and career success. Research findings highlighted the importance for organisations to invest actively both in the creation of a supportive environment for career skills development and stimulating individuals to make use of the opportunities for skills development (De Vos et al., 2011). Hence, supportive treatment, favourable work experiences, training and promotion opportunities could increase perceptions of organisational support (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006).

Social support is a viable construct, which has been linked empirically to several measures of positive factors such as enhanced levels in areas of emotional and employee well-being, physical health and job performance (McGuire, 2012; Osman et al., 2014; Vilchinsky et al., 2011). Social support is a helpful resource that could meet an individual's urgent needs and is provided by a network of others such as family, friends, co-workers and other community members (Xu et al., 2017). Jepson (2010) found that women with high levels of social support tended to experience success in their careers. Individuals with high perceived social support believe they can count on their family and friends to provide quality assistance, which includes listening, expressing warmth and affection, offering advice or any other way that enhances well-being (Lakey, 2007). Social support could serve to reduce experiences of stress or anxiety, afford a career-related function for advice and provide information related to task accomplishment (Terrion & Leonard, 2007). Therefore, workplace sensitivity to the unique needs of women, and supervisory or family support to maintain work/life balance could assist women to attain personal growth, career development and satisfaction (Nomaguchi, 2012; Oti, 2013).

Career satisfaction depends on the extent to which individuals fulfil their vocational self-concepts (Huang, 2006; Super, 1990). Career satisfaction is a measure of the extent to which individuals believe their career progress or achievement is consistent with their own goals, values and preference (Karavardar, 2014). In addition, career satisfaction may be attributed to the development of competencies associated with one's job that provide opportunities for

career advancement (Srikanth & Israel, 2012). According to Karavardar (2014), career satisfaction is often viewed as a major indicator of subjective career success and reflects individuals' perceptions about their career-related roles and personal accomplishments. A study by Rizvi, Raymer, Kunik and Fisher (2012) found that women physicians were more concerned with perceived lack of time for relationships with colleagues and family, and less satisfied with mentoring relationships and support from all sources than men. In addition, women physicians were less satisfied with career advancement opportunities, recognition and salary as compared to men (Rizvi et al., 2012).

Research findings suggest that improving emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy positively influence job and work-related attitudes, and should have positive effects on individuals' career satisfaction and performance (Coetzee, 2015; Guan et al., 2015; Mousavi et al., 2012; Zacher, 2014a). Furthermore, research findings indicate that POS affects career satisfaction in terms of pay, advancement, achievement of career goals, and development of new skills in the current jobs (Kirkbesoglu & Ozder, 2015). Hence, proactive career attitudes, as driven by the needs of the individual and supportive organisational career systems, should generate positive career success outcomes as measured by career satisfaction and external aspects such as salary and job level (Baruch & Quick, 2007; Hall, 2004; Waters et al., 2014).

In conclusion, in the present study, psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) were regarded as flexible self-regulatory cognitive-affective meta-capacities that could be developed or affirmed through training, coaching and counselling interventions (Coetzee & Harry, 2014). Therefore, supportive environments for vocational guidance, career education and career counselling are important interventions for developing or increasing psychosocial attributes, which should have positive effects on individuals' career development, career satisfaction and work performance (Coetzee et al., 2015; Savickas, 2013; Zacher, 2014a).

4.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided a theoretical integration of a psychosocial profile in relation to enhancing the career success of professional women.

The following literature research aims were achieved in Chapter 4:

Research aim 2: To conceptualise the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction as explained by theoretical models in the literature.

Research aim 3: To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction, and to explain the relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model.

Research aim 4: To conceptualise how individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) influence the manifestation of their psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their perception of career satisfaction.

Research aim 5: To evaluate the implications of a psychosocial profile for the contemporary career development practices of professional women critically.

The research aims of the literature have therefore been achieved in this chapter.

Since the hypothetical theoretical model discussed above posits multivariate relationships, Chapter 5 presents a discussion of the empirical analysis with the specific aim of determining the statistical strategies that could be applied to examine the relationship dynamics between the constructs of the psychosocial profile and career satisfaction.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHOD

Chapter 5 outlines the empirical investigation with the explicit aim to assess whether an empirically tested psychosocial profile could be constructed for career development purposes. This was achieved by investigating the statistical strategies that could be applied to investigate the relationship dynamics between the composite set of the psychosocial factors (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction measures. To achieve the objectives of the study, a non-experimental quantitative cross-sectional survey design was deemed appropriate because it allows for the operationalisation of constructs in terms of specific measuring instruments in a systematic and controlled way (Mouton & Marais, 1996; Salkind, 2012). The following are advantages of a cross-sectional survey research design approach (Salkind, 2012):

- Data is collected at a certain point in time from a large number of participants
- It is descriptive in nature with no attempt to manipulate individuals
- There is no interview bias, but greater confidentiality for the participants
- The method is less expensive and allows to collect data quicker

However, a major limitation of a survey design is that the results can only be generalised to the sample population of interest at the time of study (Bonds-Raacke & Raacke, 2014). In addition, there could be a low response rate on the population being studied and reliance on self-reports could mean that the data collected is based on participants' belief of the accuracy in the account of events (Leed & Ormrod, 2016). Because self-reports give the respondent's own view or self-observation, respondents are inclined to social desirability bias, a phenomenon in which participants seek to present themselves in a favourable manner (Hawkshead & Krousel-Wood, 2007; Triki et al., 2015).

Quantitative research is a method based on numerical and quantifiable data, which can be divided into experimental and non-experimental methods (Riggio, 2009). Use of a quantitative research method ensures that the findings and conclusions are based on methodical and objective facts that are subjected to rigorous testing, fundamentally different from common sense (Robson, 2011). Experimental research encompasses manipulating a variable, whereas, nonexperimental research does not rely on manipulation of variables, but somewhat makes observations about how variables are related to another and describes the findings (Bonds-Raacke & Raacke, 2014). A non-experimental quantitative survey design was used to achieve the empirical aims of this study, since most variables of interest in social sciences are

considered as traits or characteristics of human behaviour (for example, gender, social class, and attitudes) which cannot be easily manipulated and can gather information on a variety of issues from numerous participants (Bonds-Raacke & Raacke, 2014; Salkind, 2012).

Research hypotheses in relation to the psychosocial factors (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction measures were formulated. The research hypotheses were tested with the aid of descriptive, correlational and inferential (multivariate) statistics.

The empirical analysis comprised the following nine steps:

- Step 1: Determination and description of the sample
- Step 2: Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery
- Step 3: Administration of the psychometric battery
- Step 4: Capturing the criterion data
- Step 5: Formulation of research hypotheses
- Step 6: Statistical processing of the data
- Step 7: Reporting and interpretation of the results
- Step 8: Integration of research
- Step 9: Formulation of conclusions, limitations and recommendations

Steps one to six are discussed in this chapter and steps seven to nine are discussed in Chapters six and seven.

5.1 DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

A population is a group of potential participants to whom the findings of a study are to be generalised, whereas a sample is a subset of the population, which a researcher uses to study the total population (Salkind, 2012). A sampling technique is used for the selection of a group that is representative of the population in the study (Riggio, 2009). There are two major categories of sampling, probability and non-probability sampling. With probability random sampling, the likelihood of any one member of the population being selected for a study is known, whereas in non-probability sampling the likelihood of selection of any one member from the population is unknown (Salkind, 2012).

Probability random sampling requires more work, and is expensive but has the following advantages (Affleck, 2010):

- imparts a degree of objectivity and secures the basis for statistical inferences concerning the descriptive parameters of the population;
- is formulated to objectify the selection process to permit valid assessment of the distribution of sample-based estimates; and
- admits the selection of any one of a typical large number of possible samples, and one can estimate population parameters of interest in an unbiased manner as well as attach valid measures of precision to those estimates.

According to Affleck (2010), in non-probability sampling, the investigator plays a direct role in the selection process with the aim of assembling a sample that is typical of the population. Although it can yield an estimate that is close in value to a particular population parameter, and because of its discretionary nature, the selection process provides no basis for assessing the potential error of estimate (Affleck, 2010). The present study utilised a non-probability purposive sampling method to achieve the objectives of the study. Purposive sampling is based on careful selection of cases that are readily available, accessible and typical of the population (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). Purposive sampling is easier to generate a sample, the cost is low and representativeness is possible, but degree of generalisability of findings to the rest of the population could become limited to an extent (Salkind, 2012). This approach was chosen to generate a sufficient inclusion of a readily available and accessible sampling population needed to participate in the present research study (Salkind, 2012).

The population comprised professional women working in various industries in the South African context. This research utilised the non-probability purposive sampling, where data was purposively collected from a readily available and accessible population of chartered accountant, engineering and HR professional women in the data bases of the South African Institute of Chartered Accountants (SAICA), the Engineering Council of South Africa (ECSA) and South African Board for People Practices (SABPP) professional bodies. The participants were recruited via the research managers of these professional bodies, who distributed the link of the survey to the participants' email addresses. Initially (N = 5 572) were purposively targeted, however, only (N = 1 281) completed the questionnaires (23% response rate). In all 606 participants fully completed the questionnaires and formed part of the study, thus an overall response rate of 47% based on N = 1 281 sample. The final sample (N = 606) of participants constituted professional women from different age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level groups. Individuals were required to complete an online survey of the seven measuring instruments.

The profile of the sample is described in terms of the following biographical variables: age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level. The decision to use these categories of biographical variables was based on the exploration in the literature review of variables that influence the psychosocial factors (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction of professional women.

5.1.1 Composition of sample by age

The biographical age of the participants was measured in terms of the career development life stages as suggested by Super (1990) and the kaleidoscope model stages by Mainiero and Sullivan (2006): exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline/late career stages. According to Super's (1990), career life stages and Mainiero and Sullivan (2006) kaleidoscope models stages, the participants indicated all the phases (exploration/entry, establishment, maintenance, and decline/late) of their careers.

Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1 depict the age distribution of the participants in the sample ($N = 576$) ($Mean\ age = 35.41$; $SD = 8.39$). Participants under the age of 25 years entering the world of work to pursue a career comprised 2.43% of the sample. Participants between the ages 25 and 44 years in early adulthood and establishment stages comprised 84.7%. Participants between 46 and 60 years in middle adulthood and maintenance stage comprised 11.5%. Participants older than 60 years in the mid/late career stage comprised 1.4% in terms of the kaleidoscope model (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006) for women's unique stages.

Table 5.1

Age Distribution of Sample (N = 576)

		Age				Super (1957, 1990); Mainiero and Sullivan (2006) career life stages
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent	
Valid	Younger than 25 years	14	2.4	2.4	2.4	Exploration/entry
	25-44 years	488	84.7	84.7	87.2	Establishment
	45-60 years	66	11.5	11.5	98.6	Maintenance
	Older than 60 years	8	1.4	1.4	100.0	Decline
Total		576	100.0	100.0		

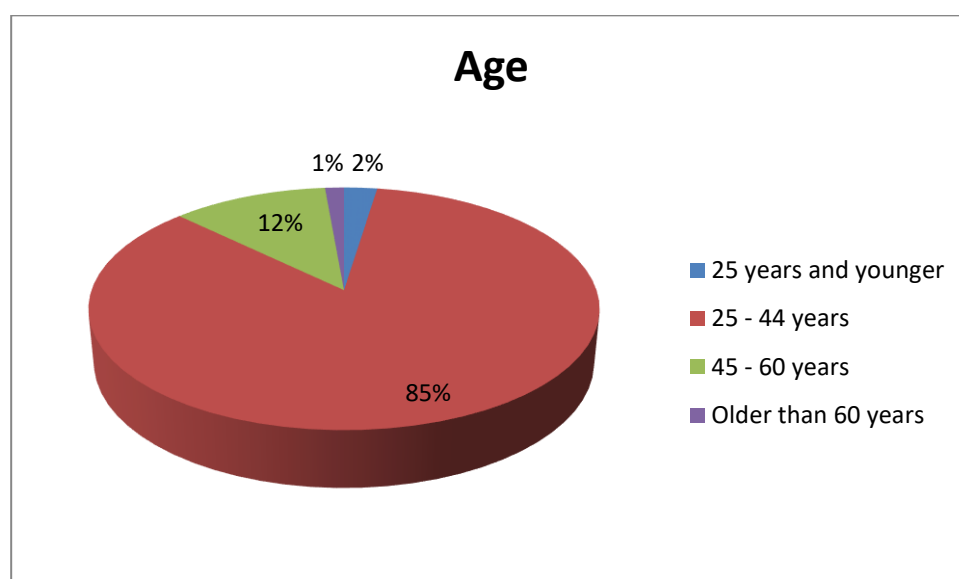


Figure 5.1: Sample distribution by age (N = 576)

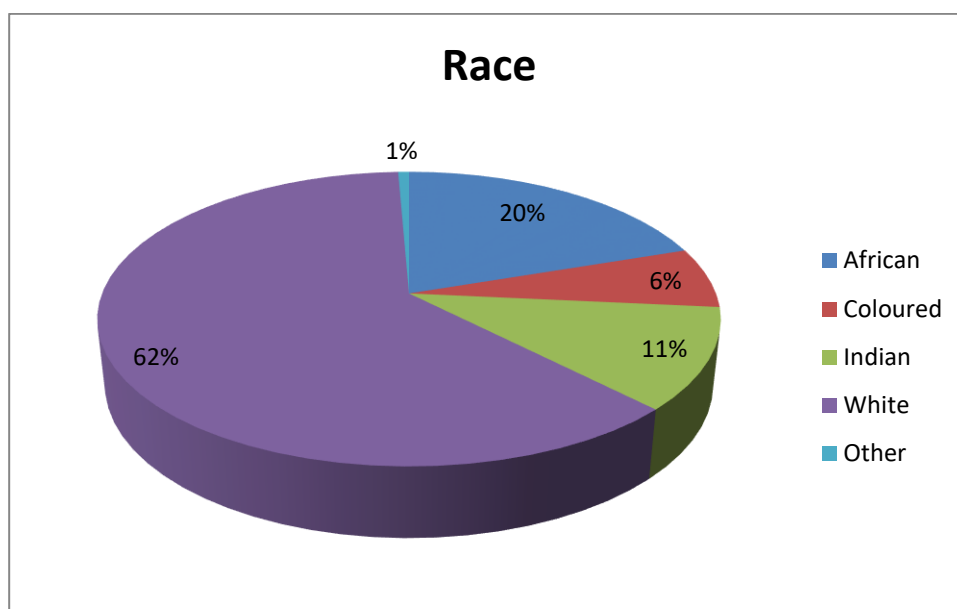
5.1.2 Composition of sample by race

In terms of race, the sample as shown in Table 5.2 and Figure 5.2 was skewed towards white participants (61.8%). Black participants comprised Africans (19.9%), Indians (11.1%), and coloureds (6.6%). Overall, the black participants comprised 37.6% of the sample. Only 0.7% of participants were others, and these participants were subsequently not included in any statistical tests comparing the results of the race groups.

Table 5.2

Race Distribution of Sample (N = 604)

		Race			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	African	120	19.9	19.9	19.9
	Coloured	40	6.6	6.6	26.5
	Indian	67	11.1	11.1	37.6
	White	373	61.8	61.8	99.3
	Other	4	0.7	0.7	100.0
Total		604	100.0	100.0	

*Figure 5.2: Sample distribution by race (N = 604)*

5.1.3 Composition of sample by marital status

Table 5.3 and Figure 5.3 show the marital status distribution of participants in the sample. Most of the participants were married (66.8%) while singles made up 28.9%. Another 4% were divorced or separated. Only 0.3% of participants were widowed, and these participants were subsequently not included in any statistical tests comparing the results of the marital status groups.

Table 5.3

Marital Status Distribution of Sample (N = 603)

		Marital status			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Single	174	28.9	28.9	28.9
	Married	403	66.8	66.8	95.7
	Divorced/Separated	24	4.0	4.0	99.7
	Widowed	2	0.3	0.3	100.0
	Total	603	100.0	100.0	

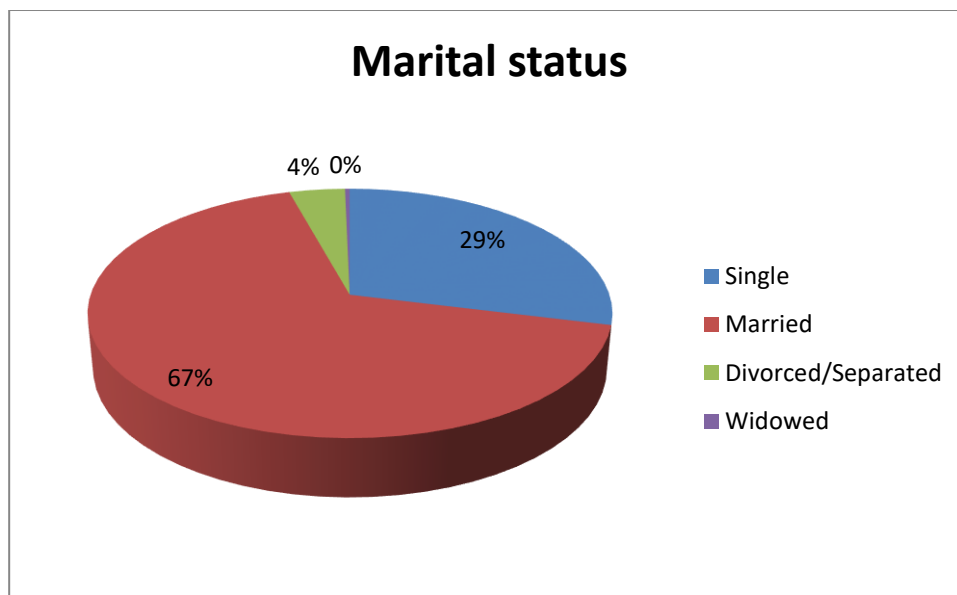


Figure 5.3: Sample distribution by marital status (N = 603)

5.1.4 Composition of sample by number of children

As shown in Table 5.4 and Figure 5.4, the sample of participants with no children comprised 42.4%, followed by 27.2% with two children, 22.6% with one child, 6.5% with three children, 1% with four children and 0.3% with five children. In summary, participants with children comprised 57.6% of the sample.

Table 5.4

Number of Children Distribution of Sample (N = 602)

		Number of children			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	0	255	42.4	42.4	42.4
	1	136	22.6	22.6	65.0
	2	164	27.2	27.2	92.2
	3	39	6.5	6.5	98.7
	4	6	1.0	1.0	99.7
	5	2	0.3	0.3	100.0
Total		602	100.0	100.0	

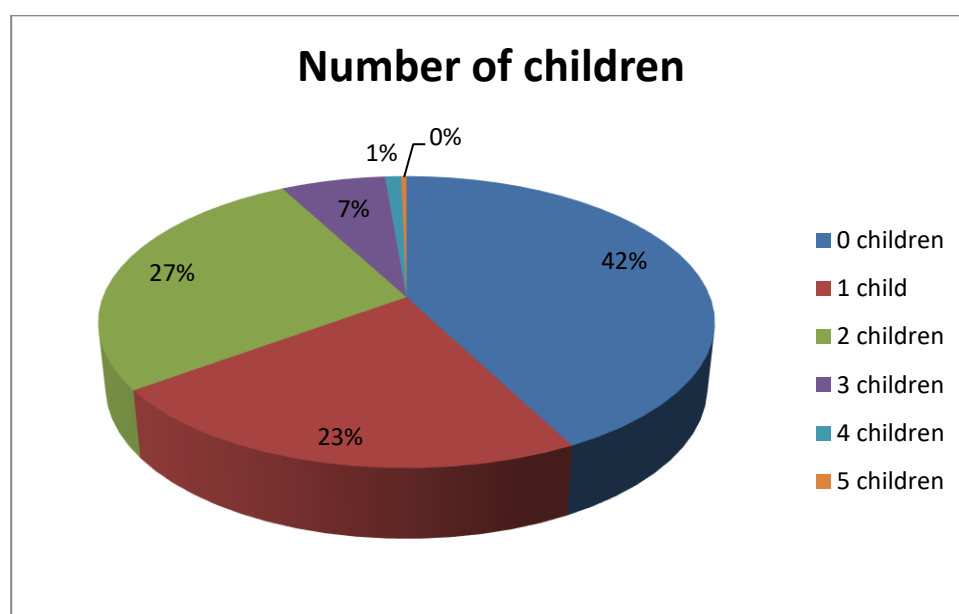


Figure 5.4: Sample distribution by number of children (N = 602)

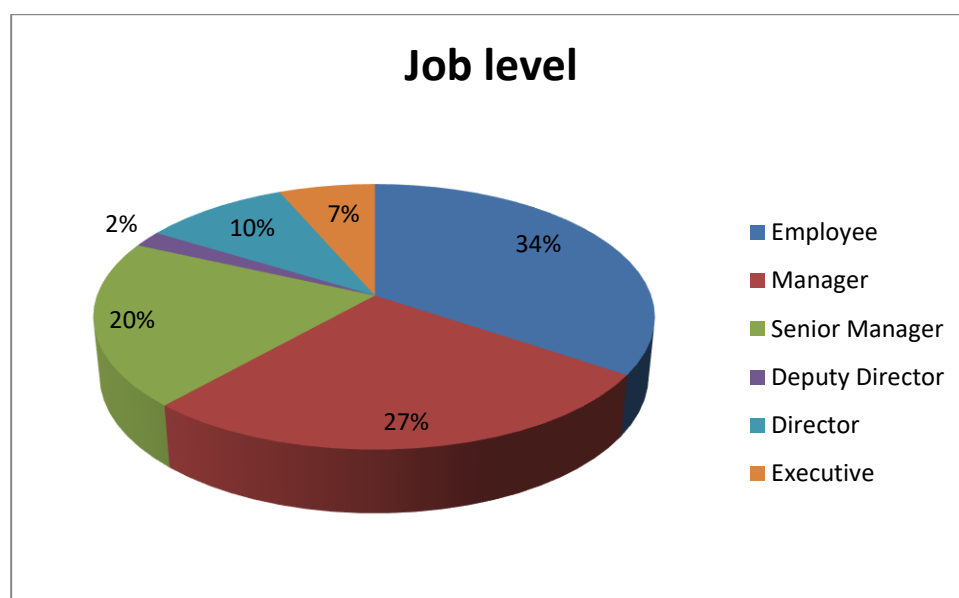
5.1.5 Composition of sample by job level

Table 5.5 and Figure 5.5 represent the job level distribution of participants in the sample. The distribution of the sample reflected that of the participants (N = 604), 34.4% were employees, 27.2% were managers, 20.2% were senior managers, 2% were deputy directors, 9.8% were directors and 6.5% were at the executive job level. In summary, participants in managerial-level positions comprised 65.7%.

Table 5.5

Job Level Distribution of Sample (N = 604)

		Job level			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Employee	208	34.4	34.4	34.4
	Manager	164	27.2	27.2	61.6
	Senior manager	122	20.2	20.2	81.8
	Deputy director	12	2.0	2.0	83.8
	Director	59	9.8	9.8	93.5
	Executive	39	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	604	100.0	100.0	

*Figure 5.5: Sample distribution by job level (N = 604)*

5.1.6 Composition of sample by total monthly income

Table 5.6 and Figure 5.6 show the total monthly income distribution of participants in the sample. As shown, 39.4% of the sample earned R50 000 and more per month, 20.6% earned between R30 000 and R39 999 per month, 17.6% earned between R40 000 and R49 999 per month, 13.5% earned between R20 000 and R29 999 per month, 4.3% earned between R15 000 and R19 999 per month. Only 4.5% of the participants earned less than R15 000. High income is generally expected in terms of the level of education and expertise required for the

nature of work performed by the participating sample. Overall, participants with high-level income comprised 77.6%.

Table 5.6

Total Monthly Income Distribution of Sample (N = 601)

		Total monthly income			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Less than R15 000	27	4.5	4.5	4.5
	R15 000–R19 999	26	4.3	4.3	8.8
	R20 000–R29 999	81	13.5	13.5	22.3
	R30 000–R39 999	124	20.6	20.6	42.9
	R40 000–R49 999	106	17.6	17.6	60.6
	R50 000 and over	237	39.4	39.4	100.0
Total		601	100.0	100.0	

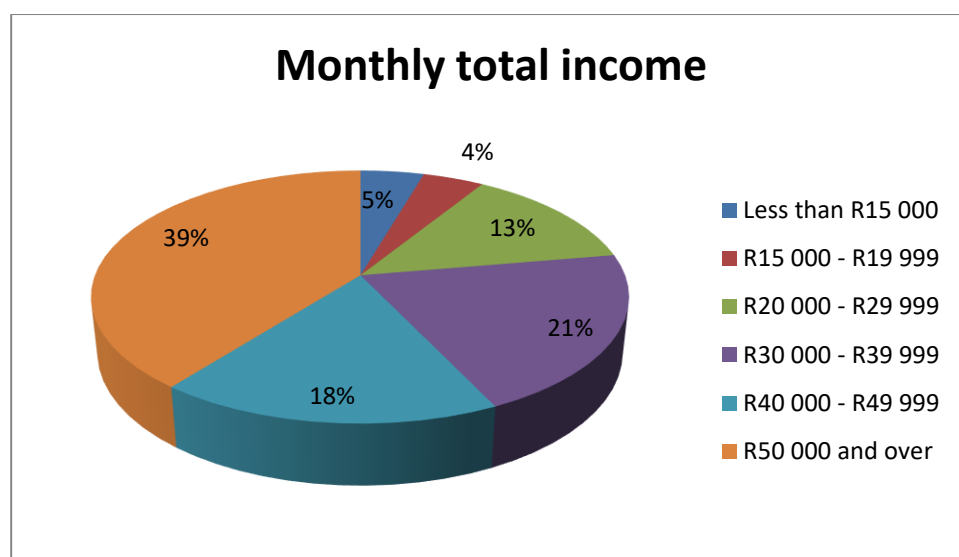


Figure 5.6: Sample distribution by total monthly income (N = 601)

5.1.7 Composition of sample by education level

Table 5.7 and Figure 5.7 illustrate the education level of participants in the sample. The majority of participants had an honours degree education (56.3%), followed by a degree (18.7%), masters (16.2%), certificate/diploma (7.5%) and only 1.3% of the participants hold a PhD degree. Higher education levels are generally expected owing to the nature of work performed

by the participating sample. Overall, the majority of participants had a post-graduate level qualification (73.8%).

Table 5.7

Education Level Distribution of Sample (N = 604)

		Education level			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Certificate/Diploma	45	7.5	7.5	7.5
	Degree	113	18.7	18.7	26.2
	Honours	340	56.3	56.3	82.5
	Master's	98	16.2	16.2	98.7
	PhD	8	1.3	1.3	100.0
Total		604	100.0	100.0	

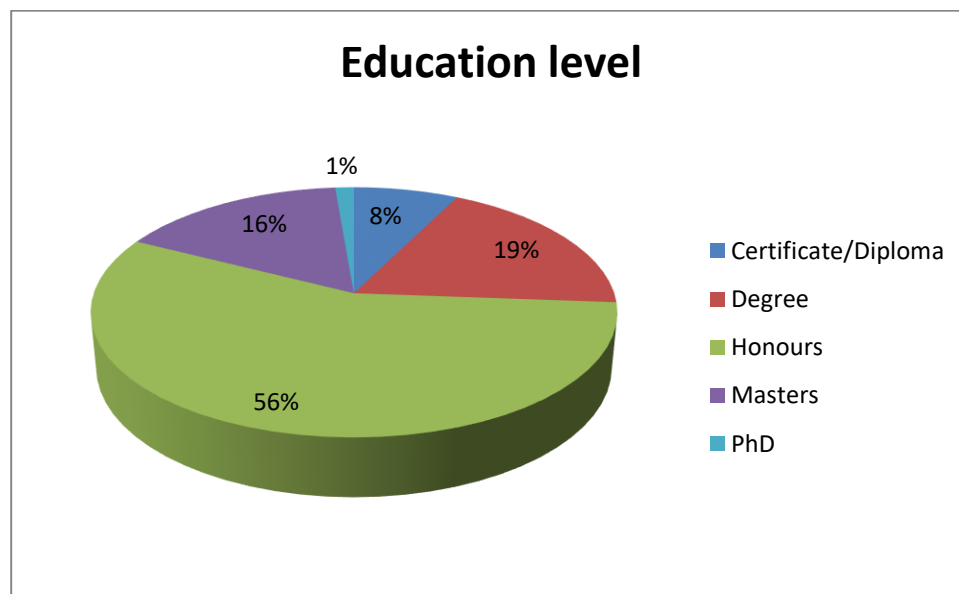


Figure 5.7: Sample distribution by education level (N = 604)

5.1.8 Composition of sample by years in current career

Table 5.8 and Figure 5.8 illustrate the years in current job of participants in the sample. The majority of participants had been in their current career between six and ten years (29.54%), followed by 11 to 15 years (19.97%), three to five years (18.48%), 16 to 20 years (13.70%), more than 20 years (13.20%), one to two years (3.96%) and only 1.16% of the participants had been in their career for less than one year. Long periods in current career are generally

expected owing to the number of years required to achieve a certain level of expertise by the participating sample. Overall, the majority of participants had been in their current career between six and 21 years (76.41%).

Table 5.8

Years in Current Career Distribution of Sample (N = 604)

		Years in current career			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	<1yr	7	1.16	1.16	1.16
	1–2 yrs	24	3.96	3.96	5.12
	3–5 yrs	112	18.48	18.48	23.60
	6–10 yrs	179	29.54	29.54	53.14
	11–15 yrs	121	19.97	19.97	73.10
	16–20 yrs	83	13.70	13.70	86.80
	21+ yrs	80	13.20	13.20	100.00
Total		606	100.0	100.0	

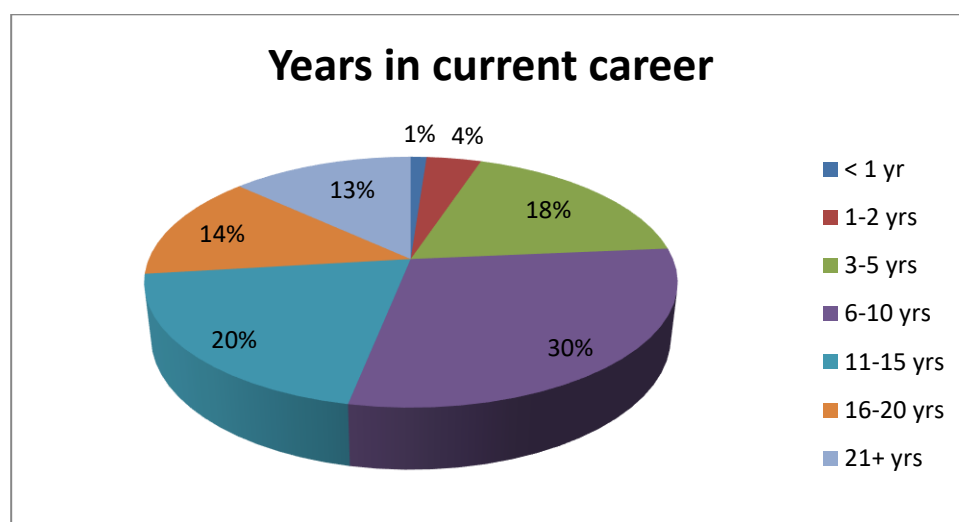


Figure 5.8: Sample distribution by years in current career (N = 606)

5.1.9 Composition of sample by employment status

Finally, as shown in Table 5.9 and Figure 5.9, the sample distribution found that of the participants (N = 600), the majority (90.8%) were employed permanently, 3.7% were employed temporarily and 5.5% were in other employment category. Overall, all participants were employed.

Table 5.9

Employment Status Distribution of Sample (N = 600)

		Employment status			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Permanent	545	90.8	90.8	90.8
	Temporary	22	3.7	3.7	94.5
	Other	33	5.5	5.5	100.0
Total		600	100.0	100.0	

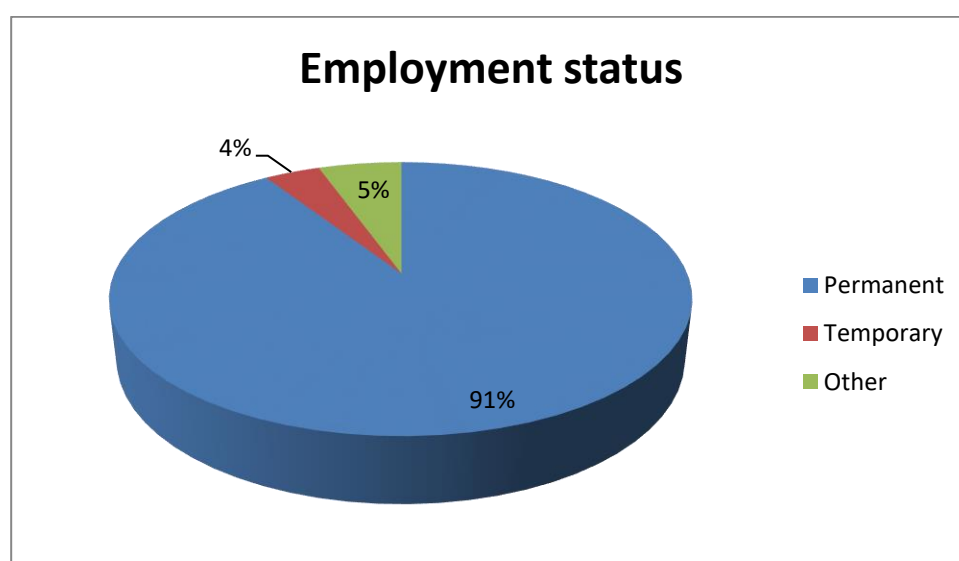


Figure 5.9: Sample distribution by employment status (N = 600)

5.1.10 Summary

The biographical profile obtained from the sample showed that the main sample characteristics that needed to be considered in the interpretation of the empirical results were as follows: age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income, education level, and employment status. Table 5.10 shows that 84.7% of the sample was between the ages of 25 and 44 years implying that the majority was in early adulthood (exploration and establishment career stage), the sample participants were predominantly white (61.8%), married (66.8%), and skewed towards employees with children (57.6%). Overall, the participants occupied managerial-level positions (65.7%), and earned a total monthly income between R30 000 and R50 000 and over (77.6%). The majority of participants had a post-graduate qualification (73.8%), years in current career (76.41%) and all participants were employed.

Table 5.10

Summary of Frequency Distribution: Biographical Distribution of Sample (N = 606)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Age	Younger than 25 years	14	2.4	2.4	2.4
	25–44 years	488	84.7	84.7	87.2
	45–60 years	66	11.5	11.5	98.6
	Older than 60	8	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	576	100.0	100.0	
Race	African	120	19.9	19.9	19.9
	Coloured	40	6.6	6.6	26.5
	Indian	67	11.1	11.1	37.6
	White	373	61.8	61.8	99.3
	Other	4	0.7	0.7	100.0
	Total	604	100.0	100.0	
Marital status	Single	174	28.9	28.9	28.9
	Married	403	66.8	66.8	95.7
	Divorced or Separated	24	4.0	4.0	99.7
	Widowed	2	0.3	0.3	100.0
	Total	603	100.0	100.0	
Number of children	0	255	42.4	42.4	42.4
	1	136	22.6	22.6	65.0
	2	164	27.2	27.2	92.2
	3	39	6.5	6.5	98.7
	4	6	1.0	1.0	99.7
	5	2	0.3	0.3	100.0
	Total	602	100.0	100.0	
Job level	Employee	208	34.4	34.4	34.4
	Manager	164	27.2	27.2	61.6
	Senior manager	122	20.2	20.2	81.8
	Deputy director	12	2.0	2.0	83.8
	Director	59	9.8	9.8	93.5
	Executive	39	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	604	100.0	100.0	
Total monthly income	Less than R15 000	27	4.5	4.5	4.5
	R15 000–R19 999	26	4.3	4.3	8.8
	R20 000–R29 999	81	13.5	13.5	22.3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Education level	Certificate/diploma	45	7.5	7.5	7.5
	Degree	113	18.7	18.7	26.2
	Honours	340	56.3	56.3	82.5
	Master's	98	16.2	16.2	98.7
	PhD	8	1.3	1.3	100.0
Total		604	100.0	100.0	
Years in current career	< 1yr	7	1.16	1.16	1.16
	1–2 yrs	24	3.96	3.96	5.12
	3–5 yrs	112	18.48	18.48	23.60
	6–10 yrs	179	29.54	29.54	53.14
	11–15 yrs	121	19.97	19.97	73.10
	16–20 yrs	83	13.70	13.70	86.80
	21+ yrs	80	13.20	13.20	100.00
Total		606	100.0	100.0	
Employment status	Permanent	545	90.8	90.8	90.8
	Temporary	22	3.7	3.7	94.5
	Other	33	5.5	5.5	100.0
Total		600	100.0	100.0	

5.2 CHOOSING AND MOTIVATING THE CHOICE OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

The basis for the selection of the psychometric battery was guided by the literature review. In addition, the measuring instruments were chosen based on the relevance to theories and models of the present study. The psychometric instruments were investigated and chosen on the basis of validity and reliability, suitability and cost effectiveness to assess the research constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction. Validity refers to the extent to which an instrument measures precisely what it is intended to measure (Salkind, 2012). Reliability refers to the consistency of a measuring instrument or its stability over time (Riggio, 2009), or when a measure is applied and yields consistent results on repetition (Robinson, 2008).

Self-report demographic, emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support, including objective and subjective career success measures were collected via a survey web-linked to professional women to achieve the objectives of this research study as follows:

- a biographical questionnaire to obtain the personal information required for the statistical analysis of the data (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income, education, and employment status);
- the assessing emotions scale (AES) developed by (Schutte et al., 2009) to measure the construct of emotional intelligence;
- the career adapt-abilities scale (CAAS) developed by Savickas and Porfeli (2012) to measure the career adaptability construct;
- the psychosocial career preoccupations scale (PCPS) developed by Coetzee (2014b) to measure the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations;
- the new general self-efficacy (NGSE) scale developed by (Chen et al., 2001) to measure the self-efficacy construct.
- the survey of perceived organisational support (SPOS) developed by (Eisenberger et al., 1986) to measure the construct of perceived organisational support;
- The multidimensional scale of perceived social support (MSPSS) developed by (Zimet et al., 1988) to measure the social support construct; and
- The career satisfaction scale (CSS) as developed by (Greenhaus et al., 1990) to measure the construct of career satisfaction.

The AES (Schutte et al., 2009), CAAS (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), CPS (Coetzee, 2014b), NGSE (Chen et al., 2001), SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986), MSPSS (Zimet et al., 1988) and the CSS (Greenhaus et al., 1990) were chosen based on their reliability, validity, suitability, and cost-effectiveness. In the sections that follow, these research instruments are discussed.

5.2.1 Assessing emotions scale (AES)

The sub-section below presents the rationale and purpose of the instrument, a description of the sub-scales within the instrument, the validity and reliability of the AES, including administration and interpretation of the instrument. In conclusion, the motivation for using the AES in the study is discussed.

5.2.1.1 Rationale and purpose of the AES

The AES (Schutte et al., 2009) also termed the emotional intelligence scale is based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original model of emotional intelligence. Founded on their model, Salovey and Mayer (1990) define emotional intelligence as a mix of traits and abilities. The AES attempts to assess traits or characteristics by measuring four dimensions of emotional intelligence (perception of emotions, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions and

utilisation of emotions). A trait approach to assessing emotional intelligence can be utilised as a self-report inventory to collect information regarding the display of emotionally intelligent capabilities in day-to-day life (Schutte et al., 2009).

The AES is based on the definition proposed in the original Salovey and Mayer (1990) model to assess the characteristics of emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 2009). As suggested by Schutte et al. (1998), the AES scale can be used for research purposes and to assist individuals who are motivated to self-reflect on characteristics of their emotional functioning in the context of matters such as career goals or experience of problems that may be associated with emotional functioning (Schutte et al., 2009).

5.2.1.2 *Description of the AES*

The AES (Schutte et al., 2009) is a 33-item self-report inventory, which uses a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The participants are asked to rate their responses by circling 1 if they strongly disagree, 2 if they somewhat disagree, 3 if they neither agree nor disagree, 4 if they somewhat agree, and 5 if they strongly agree with the given statement of emotional intelligence. The scale measures the following four sub-scales of emotional intelligence traits:

- Perception of emotion (10 items, e.g. *I am aware of my emotions as I experience them*)
- Managing own emotions (9 items, e.g. *I have control over my emotions*)
- Managing others' emotions (8 items, e.g. *I like to share my emotions with others*) and
- Utilisation of emotions (6 items, e.g. *When my mood changes, I see new possibilities*).

5.2.1.3 *Validity and reliability of the AES*

Validity studies on the AES justify the various underlying constructs of the four subscales (Bastian, Burns, & Nettelbeck, 2005; Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Davies, Lane, Devonport, & Scott, 2010). In terms of reliability, reports of test-retest correlations were between .89 and .96 (Davies et al., 2010), and internal consistency reliability coefficients ranged between .60 and .96 with an overall emotional intelligence scale between .86 and .88 (Cakan & Altun, 2005; Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2011; Kun et al., 2010).

Numerous studies that have explored emotional intelligences obtained results that provide some evidence regarding the validity of the AES scale, including other measures of emotional

intelligence such as the emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i) and the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso intelligence test (MSCEIT) (Bastian et al., 2005; Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Schutte et al., 1998).

5.2.1.4 Administration and interpretation of the AES

The AES (Schutte et al., 2009) is a self-report instrument with clear instructions, which is administered to individual respondents and does not require supervision. The questionnaire takes approximately 5 to 10 minutes to complete. A five-point Likert-type scale is used for rating emotional functioning or responses related to emotions.

Data was collected by means of a web-linked survey and each respondent's self-administered inventory was scored electronically. The total scale scores were calculated by reverse coding items 5, 28 and 33, and then summing all items. Scores can range from 33 to 165, the higher the score, the higher the respondent's level of emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 2009).

5.2.1.5 Motivation for using the AES

As stated above, the AES scale (Schutte et al., 2009) has been widely used for research and several studies suggest its validity and reliability. Hence, the construct 'emotional intelligence' as measured by the AES scale was relevant and applicable to the present research.

5.2.2 Career adapt-abilities scale (CAAS)

The section below presents a discussion on the rationale and purpose of the scale, description of the sub-scales within the scale, administration and interpretation, including the validity and reliability of the CAAS. To conclude, the motivation for using the CAAS in the study is given.

5.2.2.1 Rationale and purpose of the career adapt-abilities scale (CAAS)

The CAAS was developed in multiple countries by Savickas and Porfeli (2012) to measure specific beliefs, attitudes and competencies of career adaptability in four components or subscales, namely career concerns, control, curiosity and confidence as psychosocial attributes that enable individuals to cope with career developmental tasks.

The CAAS (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) is a multi-factorial self-rating measure comprising four self-regulatory strengths (career concerns, control, curiosity and confidence) that facilitate adaptive readiness and preparation for transitioning to work, including adaptive behaviours to

prepare for current and anticipated occupational changes (Tolentino et al., 2014). Hence, the instrument was used in the present to determine individuals' career adaptability resources.

5.2.2.2 *Description of the CAAS*

The CAAS developed by Savickas and Porfeli (2012) comprising 24 items is used to measure participants' career adaptability. A five-point Likert-type scale (1 = not strong to 5 = strongest) is used for subject responses for each of the following four subscales:

- Concerns (6 items, e.g. *Thing about what my future will be like*)
- Control (6 items, e.g. *Taking responsibility for my actions*)
- Curiosity (6 items, e.g. *Becoming curious about new opportunities*) and
- Confidence (6 items, e.g. *Performing tasks effectively*).

5.2.2.3 *Validity and reliability of the CAAS*

While the CAAS scale is relatively new, it has shown to have good psychometric properties with acceptable internal consistency reliabilities obtained ranging between .70 and .91 (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Dries, Esbroeck, Van Vianen, De Cooman, & Peperman, 2012; Konstam et al., 2015; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Validity evidence was established for several countries across the four subscales (e.g. Maree, 2012; Öncel, 2014; Van Vianen, Klehe, Koen, & Dries, 2012; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

5.2.2.4 *Administration and interpretation of the CAAS*

The CAAS (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) is a self-report instrument with clear instructions, is administered to individual respondents and does not need supervision. The questionnaire takes approximately 5 to 10 minutes to complete. Participants were asked to rate how strongly they had developed each of the abilities of career adaptability and were asked to provide their ratings in a five-point Likert type format ranging from 1 (not strong) to 5 (strongest).

Data was collected by means of a web-linked survey and each respondent's self-administered inventory was scored electronically. Items were summed to generate a score ranging between 5 and 30 for each subscale, with higher scores denoting higher levels of career adaptability (Konstam et al., 2015).

5.2.2.5 *Motivation for using the CAAS*

The CAAS (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) has been widely used to measure the multidimensional construct of career adaptability as psychosocial attributes for individuals' career development and several studies have suggested its validity and reliability. Hence the construct career adaptability as measured by the CAAS scale was relevant and applicable to the present research.

5.2.3 **Psychosocial career preoccupations scale (PCPS)**

The following section reports on the rationale and purpose of the instrument, description of the sub-scales within the instrument, the validity and reliability of the PCPS, including administration and interpretation of the instrument. In conclusion, the motivation for using the PCPS in the study is discussed.

5.2.3.1 *Rationale and purpose of the (PCPS)*

The PCPS (Coetzee, 2014b) was developed to measure individuals' concerns and preoccupations about their careers. Drawing from the theories of Super (1990) and Savickas (2005; 2013), Coetzee (2014c) suggests that the turbulent career context in which individuals construct and manage their career development represents multiple challenges relating to establishing opportunities for career self-expression while adapting to changing circumstances associated with work-related commitments and managing their work-life interests. The PCPS measures three core dimensions that are non-age and non-career stage-related, namely career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work/life adjustment preoccupations as psychosocial attributes that point to the individual's readiness or motivation to adapt and change in order to satisfy psychological needs and achieve greater balance or congruence between the self and the environment.

5.2.3.2 *Description of the PCPS*

The construct psychosocial career preoccupations' was measured through the PCPS developed by Coetzee (2014b, 2015) to determine individuals' concerns and preoccupations about their careers. The PCPS comprises three subscales with 24 items measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = not concerned to 5 = extremely concerned) across three dimensions:

- Career establishment preoccupations (13 items, e.g. *To what extent are you concerned about advancing in your job or career?*)
- Career adaptation preoccupations (5 items, e.g. *To what extent are you concerned about how your concept of your interest, talent and capabilities fit with your current job or career?*), and
- Work/life adjustment preoccupations (6 items, e.g. *To what extent are you concerned about balancing work with family responsibilities?*).

5.2.3.3 *Validity and reliability of the PCPS*

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) by Coetzee (2014b) as well as research by Coetzee (2015) provided evidence of the construct validity and internal consistency reliability. High internal consistency reliabilities ranging between .70 and .95 were reported (Coetzee, 2014b; Coetzee, 2015).

5.2.3.4 *Administration and interpretation of the PCPS*

The PCPS (Coetzee, 2014b) is a self-report instrument with clear instructions and does not require supervision. The questionnaire takes approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete. A five-point Likert-type scale is used for rating current psychosocial career preoccupations and concerns.

Data was collected by means of a web-linked survey and each respondent's self-administered inventory was scored electronically. High mean scores on the subscales ($M > 4-5$) may suggest strong preoccupations and low mean scores ($M > 1-3$) may imply weak preoccupations about the particular aspects as measured by the relevant subscale (Coetzee, 2014b).

5.2.3.5 *Motivation for using the PCPS*

The PCPS (Coetzee, 2014b) is an instrument that measures the general degree of concerns with specific vocational developmental tasks across three dimensions regarded as relevant to contemporary career theory. Evidence of validity and reliability has been reported. Hence, the construct 'psychosocial career preoccupations' as measured by the PCPS scale was relevant and applicable to this study.

5.2.4 New general self-efficacy scale (NGSE)

The section below presents a discussion of the rationale and purpose of the instrument, a description of the instrument, the validity and reliability of the NGSE, including administration and interpretation of the instrument. To conclude, the motivation for using the NGSE in the study is discussed.

5.2.4.1 Rationale and purpose of the (NGSE) scale

The NGSE scale (Chen et al., 2001) was designed for organisational research and to assess general self-efficacy across situations and tasks, including its spill-over into specific situations or behaviours (for example, the degree of confidence in performing career-related activities). Individuals with high general self-efficacy expect to succeed across a variety of task domains. Thus, high general self-efficacy is an important resource for both individuals and organisations, because it can maintain employees' work motivation throughout rapidly changing and stressful job demands and situations, including buffering them from the potentially demotivating effect of failure (Chen et al., 2001).

The NGSE (Chen et al., 2001) is a unidimensional self-rating measure, and is a theoretically and practically useful construct to differentiate between individuals with low levels of general self-efficacy, and therefore may be useful for assessment and counselling in the educational and organisational domains (Chen et al., 2001; Scherbaum Cohen-Charash, & Kern, 2006). Hence, the instrument is used to determine individuals' general self-efficacy attributes in the context of career development and HR development practices.

5.2.4.2 Description of the NGSE

The NGSE scale (Chen et al., 2001) is a measure for self-efficacy, and self-reported responses are given for 8-items using a five-point Likert-style scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree, for respondents to respond to each item. A sample item is "*I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself*".

5.2.4.3 Validity and reliability of the NGSE

In previous research, the NGSE scale consistently yielded appreciably higher content validity and somewhat higher predictive validity (Chen et al., 2001; Scherbaum et al., 2006; Song & Chon, 2012). In terms of internal consistency reliability, Cronbach alpha coefficients were

obtained during: test–retest .86 and .90 with overall internal consistency ranging between .85 and .90 (Chen et al., 2001; Scherbaum et al., 2006; Song & Chon, 2012).

5.2.4.4 Administration and interpretation of the NGSE

The NGSE scale (Chen et al., 2001) is a self-reported measure with clear instructions and no supervision is required to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire takes on average 2 to 5 minutes to complete. A five-point Likert-type scale is used for rating overall ability to perform successfully across different tasks or situations.

Data was collected by means of a web-linked survey and each respondent's self-administered inventory was scored electronically. Items were summed to generate mean parameters between 3 and 4. The higher the score, the higher levels of general self-efficacy (Chen et al., 2001).

5.2.4.5 Motivation for using the NGSE

The NGSE (Chen et al., 2001) is a unidimensional construct for measuring general self-efficacy beliefs, and several studies have suggested its validity and reliability. Hence, the construct 'self-efficacy' as measured by the NGSE scale was relevant and applicable to the current research.

5.2.5 Survey of perceived organisational support (SPOS)

The discussion below reports on the rationale and purpose of the instrument, description of the instrument, the validity and reliability of the SPOS, including administration and interpretation of the instrument. In conclusion, the motivation for using the SPOS in the study is discussed.

5.2.5.1 Rationale and purpose of the (SPOS)

The SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986) began as an attempt to understand employees' organisational commitment processes better with the observation that if managers are concerned with their employees' commitment to the organisation based on various aspects, such as absenteeism, turnover and performance of individuals, likewise, employees form a general perception concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Worley, Fuqua, & Hellman, 2009).

The SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986) is a unidimensional self-reporting measure for assessing POS.

5.2.5.2 *Description of the SPOS*

The SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986) is a self-report questionnaire and is a 36-item instrument, which measures the overall construct of perceived organisational support for which participants use a seven-point Likert scale ranging between 0 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree to indicate the extent of their agreement with each item. An example item is *The organisation strongly considers my goals and values*.

5.2.5.3 *Validity and reliability of the SPOS*

Reliability studies have shown the SPOS to have a Cronbach's alpha ranging from .71 to .98 (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Riggall, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009; Worley et al., 2009). Convergent validity results were substantially meaningful (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Latif & Sher, 2012; Worley et al., 2009).

5.2.5.4 *Administration and interpretation of the SPOS*

The SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986) is a self-rating instrument with clear instructions and does not require supervision. The questionnaire takes approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete. A seven-point Likert-type scale is used for rating present possible opinions about working in their organisation. Respondents indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement with each statement that best represents their point of view about their organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Data was collected by means of a web-linked survey and each respondent's self-administered inventory was scored electronically. High score means ($M > 4-7$) may suggest that respondents have developed strong global beliefs concerning the degree to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being while low mean scores ($M > 1-3$) may suggest weak perceptions about organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Worley et al., 2009).

5.2.5.5 *Motivation for using the SPOS*

The SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986) is a unidimensional construct for assessing POS and several studies have indicated its validity and reliability. Hence, the SPOS instrument was relevant and applicable to the present research as a measure for the construct perceived organisational support for professional women.

5.2.6 **Multidimensional scale of perceived social support (MSPSS)**

The following section reports on the rationale and purpose of the MSPSS, description of the instrument and the validity and reliability of the instrument, including administration and interpretation of the instrument. To conclude, the motivation for using the MSPSS in the study is discussed.

5.2.6.1 *Rationale and purpose of the multidimensional scale of perceived social support (MSPSS)*

The MSPSS developed by Zimet et al. (1988) is a brief self-report measure of subjectively assessed social support designed to measure the perceived adequacy of support from three sources or subscales, namely family, friends, and significant others (Zimet et al., 1990).

5.2.6.2 *Description of the MSPSS*

The MSPSS (Zimet et al., 1988) is a 12-item multidimensional rating scale, which was designed with three subscales measuring social support. Respondents answer items on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = very strongly disagree to 7 = very strongly agree) for each of the following three subscales:

- Family (4 items, e.g. *I get the emotional help and support I need from my family*),
- Friends (4 items, e.g. *I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows*) and
- Significant others (4 items, e.g. *There is a special person who is around when I am in need*).

5.2.6.3 *Validity and reliability of the MSPSS*

Good internal reliability and strong factorial validity were demonstrated (Zimet et al., 1990). In addition, several studies have shown the MSPSS to have Cronbach's alpha ranging from .80

to .92 (Calvete & Connor-Smith, 2006; Canty-Mitchell & Zimet, 2000; Tonsing, Zimet, & Tse, 2012; Zimet et al., 1988; Zimet et al., 1990). Adequate construct validity studies were established and supported (Canty-Mitchell & Zimet, 2000; Osman et al., 2014; Tonsing et al., 2012; Zimet et al., 1988; Zimet et al., 1990).

5.2.6.4 Administration and interpretation of the MSPSS

The MSPSS (Zimet et al., 1988) is a self-report instrument with clear instructions and does not require supervision. The questionnaire takes approximately 5 minutes to complete. A seven-point Likert-type scale is used for rating feelings about each statement of social support.

Data was collected by means of a web-linked survey and each respondent's self-administered inventory was scored electronically. The total scale scores were calculated by summing all items with a total of 69 to 84 indicating high perception of social support, 49 to 68 indicating moderate perception, and 12 to 48 indicating low perception of social support. Thus, the higher the score, the higher the respondent's level of perception to social support (Zimet et al., 1988).

5.2.6.5 Motivation for using the MSPSS

The MSPSS (Zimet et al., 1988) is a multidimensional construct for assessing perceived social support and several studies have demonstrated its validity and reliability. Hence, the MSPSS instrument was relevant and applicable to the present research as a measure for the construct perceived social support for professional women.

5.2.7 Measuring career success factors

Objective career success was conceptualised as visible career accomplishments where job level and total monthly income variables were measured using items by Judge et al. (1999). Job level and total monthly income are included in the biographical questionnaire and are only used as biographical variables to get a relative estimate in terms of sample profile. However, the perceptions regarding job level and total monthly income as career success outcomes are not measured. Such measurement can be done by means of qualitative studies and was not the focus of the present study.

In the present study, participants were asked to report their total total monthly income at a specific point in time. Responses were placed according to the following categories: 1 = less

than R15 000; 2 = R150 000 to R19 999; 3 = R20 000 to R29 999; 4 = R30 000 to R39 999; 5 = R40 000 to R49 999; 6 = R50 000 and over (Judge et al., 1999).

5.2.8 Intrinsic or subjective career success (career satisfaction scale [CSS])

Career satisfaction (the dependent or outcome variable) as a measure of subjective career success was the core focus of the present study and is discussed in the section below.

The rationale and purpose of the instrument, description of the instrument, the validity and reliability of the CSS, including administration and interpretation of the instrument are discussed. In conclusion, the motivation for using the CSS in the study is discussed.

5.2.8.1 Rationale and purpose of the career satisfaction scale (CSS)

The adopted CSS developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990) is a brief self-report measure of subjectively assessed career satisfaction, which has been used in more than 240 studies and, according to literature, is considered the best measure (Hofmans et al., 2008; Spurk, Abele, & Volmer, 2011). The CSS evaluates individuals' satisfaction derived from the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their careers, such as pay, advancement and developmental opportunities (Karavardar, 2014).

5.2.8.2 Description of the CSS

The CSS is a one-dimensional instrument, which reflects how satisfied participants feel about their career-related roles, accomplishments or career-related goals (Karavardar, 2014). In the present study, overall intrinsic or subjective career satisfaction was measured by means of the adapted CSS (Greenhaus et al., 1990). The scale consists of 5-items and participants were instructed to use a category rating of a five-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. An example item is *I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my overall career goals*.

5.2.8.3 Validity and reliability of the CSS

Validity was established in several research studies (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Hofmans et al., 2008; Spurk et al., 2011). In terms of internal consistency reliability, Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained ranging between .74 and .88 (Karavardar, 2014; Hofmans et al., 2008; Spurk et al., 2011; Valcour & Ladge, 2008).

5.2.8.4 Administration and interpretation of the CSS

The CSS (Greenhaus et al., 1990) is a self-report instrument with clear instructions and does not require supervision. The questionnaire takes approximately 5 minutes to complete. A five-point Likert-type scale is used for rating career progress consistent with one's satisfaction with his or her goals, preferences and values.

Data was collected by means of a web-linked survey and each respondent's self-administered inventory was scored electronically. High scores on this measure indicates high levels of career satisfaction with item mean scores between 3 and 5 (Greenhaus et al., 1990).

5.2.8.5 Motivation for using the CSS

The CSS (Greenhaus et al., 1990) is a one-dimensional construct for assessing career satisfaction and several studies have indicated its validity and reliability. Hence, the CSS instrument was relevant and applicable to the present research as a measure for the construct 'career satisfaction of professional women'.

5.2.9 Limitations of the psychometric battery

The AES (Schutte et al., 2009), CAAS (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), PCPS (Coetzee, 2014b), NGSE (Chen et al., 2001), SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986), MSPSS (Zimet et al., 1988) and CSS (Greerhaus et al., 1990) instruments chosen for this research study are all self-report administered inventories. Self-reports open the possibility of significant amounts of unique information about the target of assessment, directly taps into self-perceived personality, allowing for the collection of large numbers of personality relevant variables in one administration. It is also known for clarity of communication and ease of administration (Hawkshead & Krousel-Wood, 2007; Paulhus & Vazire, 2009).

According to Paulhus and Vazire (2009), self-report measures suffer from several of the same measurement problems as other assessment methods, but the overarching issue is the credibility of self-reports. Accordingly, it cannot be assumed that individuals have perfect insight into their own personality functioning. It can therefore unfortunately not be assumed that they are honest either (Matthews et al., 2012). For instance, self-report studies are inherently based on one's personal feelings at the time of completing the questionnaire, thus for example, if an individual feels bad at that point, answers are likely to be negative, whereas

if the individual is feeling good, then the answer may be more positive (Thompson & Phua, 2005).

Some individuals show a tendency to respond to questions in a manner that, although systematic, interferes with the validity of response. Well-known examples being social desirable and acquiescent responding (Paulhus & Vazire, 2009). Because self-reports give the respondent's own view or self-observation, are inclined to social desirability bias, a phenomenon in which respondents seek to present themselves in a favourable manner (Hawkshead & Krousel-Wood, 2007; Triki, Cook, & Bay, 2015). Acquiescent responding is problematic in attitude and survey research. It denotes respondents who tend to agree with statements without regard to the content. Usually, everyone agrees with some statements and disagrees with others on a dichotomous response format (agree–disagree) (Paulhus & Vazire, 2009). The present research considered this limitation by testing the scales for the influence of common method bias, and reports on the findings in Chapter 6.

To conclude, the seven measurements (AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS) were chosen following an extensive literature review of several instruments developed to measure emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support, as well as career satisfaction. The decision to choose these instruments was based on the ability to apply statistical correlation analysis to determine the degree of relationships between several variables used in this research study. However, limitations of these seven instruments should be considered when interpreting the results of the research findings (see section 7.2.2).

5.2.10 Ethical considerations

Ethics refers to what is wrong and what is right in conducting research, and because scientific research pertains to human behaviour, it follows that such behaviour conforms to generally accepted norms, values and principles as determined by the scientific community (Mouton, 2001). Ethical considerations are vital in research and give ethical aspects the necessary consideration during all various phases of the research project. Lack of commitment to ethical considerations can adversely affect the credibility of the research, autonomy of the researchers, the quality of the research as well as the rights of the participants (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The procedures that were followed in the present research adhered to all the ethical considerations or principles necessary to ensure the ethical standing and scientific value of the research.

Ethical clearance (see ethics certificate attached as Appendix A) to conduct the research was obtained from the institution through the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology at the University of South Africa. Permission to conduct the research was obtained from the three professional bodies (SAICA, ECSA and SABPP). To ensure that the researcher maintained the ethical standards applicable to research, the following ethical principles were applied (Salkind, 2012; Terre Blanche et al., 2006):

- Adequate consideration to existing literature used to describe and analyse the constructs relevant to the present study.
- Acknowledgement and referencing of all sources are cited in the research study.
- Respect and protection of participants' rights to participate in the research study.
- Ethical issues of autonomy, voluntary participation, informed consent, confidentiality, and anonymity were adhered to in the data collecting process.
- Ensuring participants are protected from direct or indirect harm due to the research, thus participants could withdraw at any time during the survey.
- Results of the research study are made available to participants and their professional bodies through publication peer reviewed journal articles. The thesis is also uploaded on the participating university's website once the project is completed and accepted. Once the articles are published and the thesis is on the participating university's website, the researcher will provide the link and articles to the participating professional bodies for distribution to participants.
- Maximising the benefits that the research study affords to the participants and their organisations. The positive contribution of the research project was well considered and conveyed to participants

A covering letter was provided to inform participants of the purpose and benefits of research, the nature of questions, full details of how to complete the survey and the estimated time to complete the questionnaires. Ethical considerations such as anonymity, voluntary participation and confidentiality were adhered to in the data collection process. The participants were informed that the study was voluntary and all information would remain completely confidential and anonymous throughout the data collection process and research study. Informed consent was obtained from the participants and anonymity was ensured as participants were not asked to provide any identifying information that would link them to the answers provided in the survey. The covering letter also stated that by proceeding with the completion of the survey, participants gave permission to use the results for research purposes only.

All instruments were evaluated on the basis of the EEA No. 55 of 1988 which require that psychological testing and other similar assessments should be scientifically valid, reliable, fair and not biased against any employee or specific group. Accordingly, in compliance with the Act, all instruments were evaluated based on their validity and reliability.

5.3 ADMINISTRATION OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

This step in the research design relates to collection of data from the targeted sample. As the data-base was considered confidential by the SAICA, ECSA and SABPP professional bodies, a host institution web-linked Lime Survey was sent via email to the research managers of the three professional bodies who then forwarded it to the women professional respondents. Each participant received an email with the following information, including the attached web-linked Lime Survey:

- Information about the purpose of the research study.
- Information indicating that the study was voluntary, confidential and anonymous, and participants could withdraw at any time during the survey.
- Full details on how to complete the survey.
- Agreement that by proceeding with completion of the survey, the participant gave consent to participate and that results would be used for research purposes only.
- The biographical questionnaire, AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS, and CSS.

Each questionnaire with the various measuring instruments as indicated above was returned via the host institution web link and each completed survey was number coded to maintain anonymity.

5.4 SCORING OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

The responses of participants (N = 606) on the various measuring instruments were completed electronically and returned via web link to the Statistical Support Department of Unisa. The questionnaire with various measuring instruments for the present study was loaded onto the Lime Survey facilities of Unisa. The confidential web link was then sent to the research managers via email, who in turn, sent to the email address of the professional women in the data base for SAICA, ECSA and SABPP professional bodies. The data was then exported into an SPSS data file and Excel spread sheet. The statistician transferred the data to SPSS, version 23.0 (2015) and SAS, version 9.4 (2013) to produce the reports for the psychosocial factors

(emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational support and social support), career success factors and biographical factors (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level).

5.5 FORMULATION OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

A hypothesis is a statement that expresses the relationship between variables in a phenomenon being studied (Salkind, 2012). A null hypothesis is a statement that maintains that there is no difference between the groups or situations, and is denoted by the symbol H_0 (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). An alternative hypothesis is a statement that maintains that there are differences between groups or situations, and this is denoted by the symbol H_1 (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). Expressed hypothesis statements should be properly set up and then subjected to empirical testing of the specified relationships (Levin & Fox, 2011; Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). To address the empirical research questions formulated in Chapter 1, the following research hypotheses (see Table 5.11) were formulated in order to achieve the objectives of the present research study:

Table 5.11

Research Hypotheses

Research aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedure
Research aim 1: To investigate empirically the nature of the statistical interrelationship between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context.	H1: There are statistically significant interrelationships between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context.	Bivariate correlations (Spearman and Pearson product-moment correlations)
Research aim 2: To assess empirically whether individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race and marital status, number of children job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predict their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction.	H2: Individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predict their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction.	Standard multiple linear regression analysis
Research aim 3: To assess whether psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), as a composite set of latent independent variables, significantly relate to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction as a composite set of latent dependent variables.	H3: Psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) as a composite set of latent independent variables are significantly related to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction as a composite set of latent dependent variables.	Canonical correlation analysis
Research aim 4: To investigate empirically whether the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.	H4: Individuals' social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction	Path analyses (Mediation modelling)
Research aim 5: To assess whether the hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile has a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model as based on the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors.	H5: The hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile has a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model as based on the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors.	Structural Equation Modelling (path analysis)

Research aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedure
Research aim 6: To assess empirically whether there is a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction.	H6: There is a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction.	Hierarchical moderated regression analysis
Research aim 7: To assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction factors.	H7: Individuals' from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) will differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction.	Tests for significant mean differences. Parametric Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test and ANOVA (more than two groups)

5.6 STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA

The statistical procedure relevant to this study comprised descriptive statistics (Cronbach's alpha coefficients and composite reliability, Rasch analysis for uni-dimensionality of measures, means, standard deviations (SDs), kurtosis and skewness and frequency data), correlational analysis, and inferential (multivariate) statistics, regression analysis, canonical correlation analysis, mediation modelling, structural equation modelling (path analysis) (SEM), hierarchical moderated regression analysis, and ANOVA (more than two groups) followed by parametric Tukey's honest significant difference (HSD) as a post hoc test to identify the source of differences.

The data investigation process comprised three major stages, each consisting of various steps of statistical analysis, as depicted in Figure 5.10.

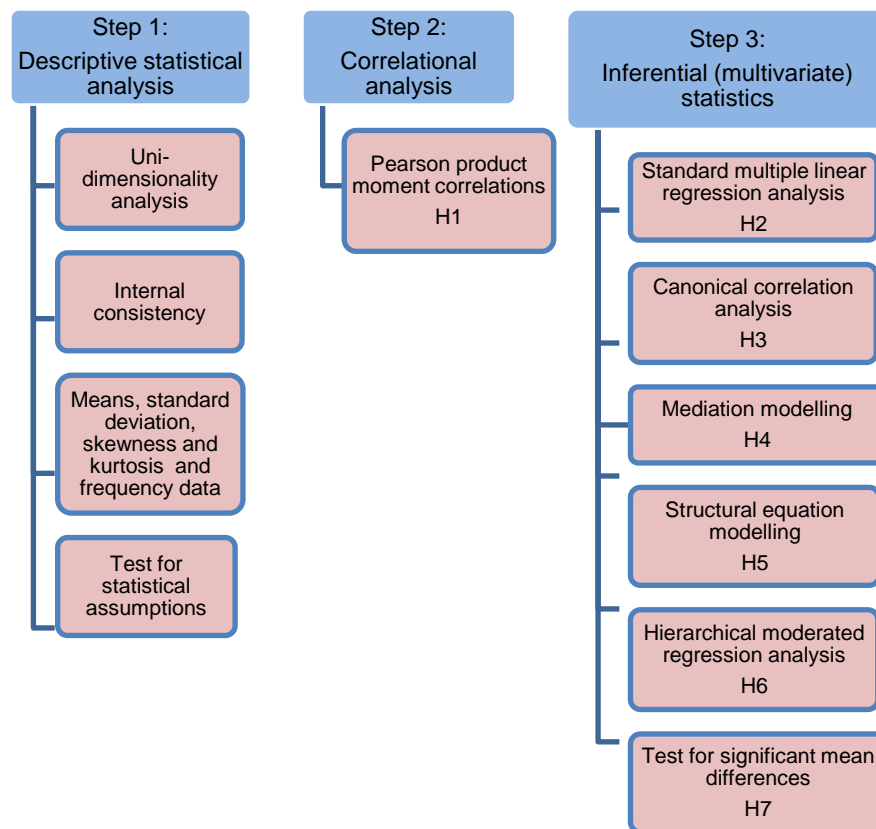


Figure 5.10: Statistical processing

5.6.1 Stage 1: Descriptive statistical analysis

Descriptive statistics describe the basic characteristics of the data in the study and provide summaries about the sample and the measures (Trochim, Donnelly, & Arora, 2016). In the present study, descriptive statistics comprised calculating the means to determine the central tendency of the scores, after which the SDs were calculated to identify the variation of scores (Salkind, 2012).

This stage consisted of the following four steps:

- assessing the uni-dimensionality of the AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS by using Rasch analysis;
- determining the internal consistency reliability of the measuring instruments using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability coefficient;
- assessing the means, SD, skewness and kurtosis of the categorical and frequency data; and
- testing for assumptions (correlational analysis, canonical correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis, and tests for significant mean differences).

5.6.1.1 *Internal consistency reliability analysis: AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS*

In the present study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to assess the internal consistency reliability of each of the measuring instruments. Since, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is inclined to over-or under-estimate reliability and because confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (a form of structural equation modelling [SEM]) was relevant to the research, Raykov's rho (p) coefficient also known as coefficient omega (ω) or composite reliability coefficient was also computed (Raykov, 2012). The cut off threshold value for reliability coefficients was set-up at $\geq .70$ for all measuring instruments as recommended by Hair et al. (2010).

5.6.1.2 *Rasch analysis: Assessing uni-dimensionality*

Rasch analysis (Boone & Rogan, 2005) was utilised to evaluate the uni-dimensionality of the various sub-dimensions of each instrument by computing the infit and outfit chi-square statistics to get an indication of how well the items measure the underlying constructs (Hair,

Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). 'Unidimensionality' refers to the presence of one latent trait underlying the data (Bond & Fox, 2015; Hattie, 1985). Rasch's reliability estimates have the advantage that neither sample size nor sample specifics influence the reliability (Boone & Rogan, 2005). Rasch analysis infers the latent trait intervals and provides the relationship between person ability and item difficulty (Bond & Fox, 2015).

The Rasch model assumes a probability functioning for person-item interaction (in terms of scoring high or low on each item) as guided by the person's ability and the difficulty of an item (Bond & Fox, 2015). The person and item measures equal to or close to 1.00 confirm the construct validity and reliability indices of the sub-scale items for the instrument (Brand-Labuschagne, 2010; Coetzee, 2014b). Researchers suggest a balance between under-fitting and over-fitting of a statistical model to lessen problems of prediction errors in the current data (Courrieu, Brand-D'Abrescia, Peereman, Spieler & Rey, 2011; Guyon & Yao, 1999; Van der Aalst, Rubin, Verbeek, Van Dongen, Kindler, & Günther, 2010). Under-fitting ensures weak consistency or low accuracy prediction of a statistical model and over-fitting ensures strong consistency or too high accuracy prediction of a statistical model (Courrieu et al., 2011; Guyon & Yao, 1999).

5.6.1.3 Means, standard deviations (SDs), skewness and kurtosis and frequencies

The means, SDs and frequencies were used to analyse the data in the current research study (Trochim et al., 2016). The mean, which is considered one of the most useful measures of central tendency, is referred to as the arithmetic average of a group of respondents' scores (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). Frequency distribution in the form of tables is used to illustrate the distribution of biographical variable data and helps to describe the characteristics of population of the sample (Levin & Fox, 2011). Skewness and kurtosis were also used to describe the shape of the frequency distribution for the present research data.

'Skewness' refers to the positive or negative symmetrical or asymmetrical distribution of a score, that is, high and low scores more or less evenly arranged around the mean (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). Ordinarily, a visual analysis of the data should convince the researcher that the distributions are symmetrical or highly asymmetrical (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). 'Kurtosis' refers to the peakness (tall or flat) in terms of the symmetrical distribution of the data scores in a research study (Levin & Fox, 2011). The skewness and kurtosis coefficient values falling within the -1 and +1 normality range are recommended for parametric tests (Howell, 2008).

5.6.1.4 Tests for assumptions

All statistical procedures assume certain distributional characteristics about the data, also termed 'assumptions' (Garson, 2012). Violation of these assumptions may undermine meaningful research or change the conclusion and interpretation of the research results. The assumptions fundamental to the tests for significant mean differences and multivariate techniques as indicated in the present research study are discussed below:

(a) *The accuracy of data entered into the data file and missing values*

To assist in the accuracy of data collected, the inventory of the measuring instruments was converted to a web-linked Lime Survey. Participants completed the inventory of the measuring instruments electronically and returned via web link to the Statistical Support Department of the institution. The statistician exported the data to the SPSS, version 23.0 (2015) and SAS, version 9.4 (2013), cleaned the questionnaires of missing values and thereafter data was deemed acceptable to analyse and produce the reports.

(b) *Ratio of cases to independent variables*

MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara (1996) suggest that the determination of sample size required to achieve adequate power to carry out planned hypothesis tests is an important aspect in a research design. According to VanVoorhis and Morgan (2007), a general rule of thumb in determining an adequate sample size is no fewer than 50 participants for a correlation or regression with the number increasing with larger numbers of independent variables (IVs). Hence, Green (1991) suggests the following formulas:

- testing the multiple correlation: $N > 50 + 8m$ (where m is the number of IVs); and
- testing individual predictors: $N > 104 + m$.

Based on the above formulas, the required sample for multiple correlations was $N > 98$ and regression $N > 110$. In the present research study, the sample obtained was $N = 606$ and was thus considered highly satisfactory to achieve sufficient statistical power for effect size and performing correlation and regression analysis (VanVoorhis & Morgan, 2007).

(c) *Outliers*

An outlier is defined as an extreme score or observation point that is isolated from other observations, which can radically alter the outcome of analysis and which can also be a violation of normality (Garson, 2012).

Outliers in the present study were identified by visually examining the boxplots of standardised normal scores for each variable.

(d) *Normality, linearity and homoscedasticity*

Multivariate normality occurs when each variable in consideration is normally distributed with respect to each other variable (Garson, 2012). Normality assumes that all the samples analysed have been drawn from populations that are normally distributed (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). Normality can be visually assessed by looking at a histogram of frequencies to examine the shape of the distribution (that is, a bell-shaped histogram suggests normal distribution) or looking at a normal probability plot computer output (Garson, 2012; Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

Formal tests of normality can be used, but a common rule of thumb for normality is to run descriptive statistics to get skewness and kurtosis (Garson, 2012). The present research study used skewness and kurtosis, as well as the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test to detect normality of data which revealed a normal data distribution (Garson, 2012).

Linearity assumption is tested when scores on any two variables, X and Y, are scattered throughout a range of possible score values to establish a graph that lies on a straight line correlation or relationship whether positive or negative (Levin & Fox, 2012). The greatest threats to a successful regression analysis are departures from linearity and the presence of outliers (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). The present research study tested this assumption by visually inspecting the generated bivariate scatterplots from the research data collected.

Homoscedasticity assumption assumes the relationship under investigation is the same for the entire range of the dependent variables (Garson, 2012). According to Garson (2012), when the homoscedasticity assumption is achieved, residuals will form a patternless cloud of dots. A lack of homoscedasticity is easily observed in a standardised scatterplot.

(e) *Multicollinearity and singularity*

Multicollinearity is a statistical phenomenon in which two or more predictor variables in a multiple regression are highly correlated ($r = >.80$) (Hair et al., 2010; Midi, Sarkar, & Rana, 2010). This is not unusual when there are a large number of independent variables in the model (Midi et al., 2010). According to Hair et al. (2010), a number of independent variables should correlate highly with the dependent variable, but with little correlation among them, to determine the specific effect that each independent variable has on the dependent variable. While perfect multicollinearity (1 or -1) leads to infinite standard errors and indeterminate coefficients, the presence of high multicollinearity could cause unstable estimates and inaccurate variances which may lead to large standard errors, large confidence intervals and affect hypothesis tests (Garson, 2012; Midi et al., 2010). In addition, this extreme case of multicollinearity in which two or more independent variables are perfectly correlated, also called 'singularity', prevents the estimation of any coefficients (Hair et al., 2010). Hence, the presence of multicollinearity tends to inflate the variances of the parameter estimates, and subsequently may lead to incorrect inferences about relationships between the independent and response variables (Midi et al., 2010). To test for the assumptions of multicollinearity, the present research study used tolerance, variance inflation factor (VIF) and condition indices (Garson, 2012; Midi et al., 2010). No indication of multicollinearity was observed in the present research study.

5.6.2 Stage 2: Correlation analysis

Correlation coefficient numerically expresses both strength and direction ranging between -1.00 and +1.00 where negative numerical values signify negative correlation, whereas positive numerical values indicate positive correlation, and the closer to 1.00 in either direction, the greater the strength of correlation (Levin & Fox, 2011). Bivariate correlation is a step in the research sequence which looks at the relationship between two variables and examines in which ways the distribution of another variable can affect that of the first variable (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (expressed as r) is the most commonly encountered bivariate measure of correlation, which illustrates the degree to which a linear relationship exists between variables and whether they vary in relation to one another (Sheskin, 2010). Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and Spearman correlation coefficient with biographical correlations were used to measure the direction and strength of the relationship between the variables of concern to this study (Levin & Fox, 2011).

Research hypothesis H1 was tested by means of correlation analysis.

Research aim 1: To investigate empirically the nature of the statistical interrelationship between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context.

5.6.3 Stage 3: Inferential and multivariate statistics

Inferential and multivariate statistics involve using information about samples to draw conclusions about populations (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). This section comprised six steps, namely reporting and interpreting (1) standard multiple linear regression analysis, (2) canonical correlation analysis, (3) mediation modelling, (4) structural equation modelling, (5) hierarchical moderated regression analysis, and (6) tests for significant mean differences.

5.6.3.1 *Standard multiple linear regression analysis*

Multiple regression is the appropriate method of analysis when a single metric dependent variable is presumed to be related to two or more metric independent variables (Hair et al., 2010). The objective is to best predict the value of the dependent variable in response to changes in one or more independent variables (Alexopoulos, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). According to Alexopoulos (2010), and as discussed in section 4.6.1.4, assumptions of a linear model (independence, linearity, normality and homoscedasticity) should be met.

In the context of the present study, the biographical variables (age, race, marital status, number of children job level, total monthly income and education level) were regarded as the independent variables. The psychosocial attributes construct variables (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction were regarded as the dependent variables.

Research hypothesis H2 was tested by means of standard multiple linear regression analysis.

Research aim 2: To assess empirically whether individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race and marital status, number of children job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predict their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction.

5.6.3.2 *Canonical correlation*

Due to a number of multiple variables, canonical correlation analysis was performed to assess the overall relationship between the psychological variables (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and social variables (perceived organisational support and social support) and career satisfaction. Canonical correlation analysis is a multivariate statistical method that examines the linear interrelationship between two sets of variables where each set contains at least two variables (Blumentritt, 2010). The set of variables is termed the 'independent variables' and the other variable is considered the dependent variable (Blumentritt, 2010). The goal of canonical analysis is to understand the potential relationship between the two composite sets of canonical variates and to discover the pattern of variables that combine to produce the highest predictive values for both sets (Blumentritt, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). Helio plots were used to show the overall canonical correlation between the independent and dependent canonical variates (Blumentritt, 2010).

The canonical correlation coefficient (expressed as R_c) measures the strength of the overall relationship between linear composites (canonical variates), a variate for the independent variables and another for the dependent variables (Hair et al., 2010). The canonical correlation analysis is useful, since it can limit the chances of committing Type I errors. The risk of a Type I error refers to the likelihood of finding a statistically significant outcome where no relationship exists. The possibility for Type I error to occur may increase when similar variables in a data set are used for too many statistical measures (Hair et al., 2010). Since the multiple regression technique can only predict a single dependent variable from a set of several independent variables, the canonical correlation analysis is beneficial for this study as it represents the bivariate correlation between two canonical variates, which enables the assessment of the relationship between two composite sets of multiple variables (in this study, the psychological and social variables and career satisfaction) (Hair et al., 2010).

Research hypothesis H3 was tested by performing canonical correlation analysis.

Research aim 3: To assess whether psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) as a composite set of latent independent variables significantly relate to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

5.6.3.3 *Mediation modelling*

Mediation occurs when a predictor affects a dependent variable indirectly through at least one intervening variable or mediator (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Mediation modelling is an empirical statistical analysis that facilitates the introduction of a mediating variable as an intermediate in the causal sequence between two variables, whereas a moderator is not part of a causal sequence between two variables—that is the mediating variable transmits the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable (the outcome) (MacKinnon, 2008). According to MacKinnon, Fairchild, and Fritz (2007), mediating variables form the basis of psychological theories. Hence, mediation represents the consideration of how a third variable affects the relationship between two other variables (i.e. mediation represents the addition of a third variable to this $X \rightarrow Y$ relationship, whereby X causes the mediator, (M) and M causes Y , so $X \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$) (MacKinnon et al., 2007).

Rucker, Preacher, Tormala and Petty (2011) suggest four requirements that should be met to establish the significance of mediating effects of the social attribute variables:

1. The independent variables, i.e. the psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) is a significant predictor of the dependent variable (career satisfaction).
2. The independent variables, i.e. the psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) is a significant predictor of the mediator (perceived organisational and social support).
3. The mediator (perceived organisational and social support) is a significant predictor of the dependent variable (career satisfaction).
4. The independent variables, i.e. the psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) is now significantly reduced (partial mediation) after statistically controlling for the mediator (perceived organisational and social support). The more reliable and stringent bias-corrected bootstrap 95% lower and upper confidence interval (CI) range should not

include zero in order to support the significant indirect effect of the relevant mediator variable (Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Rucker et al., 2011).

Research hypothesis H4 was tested by performing mediation modelling.

Research aim 4: To investigate empirically whether the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.

5.6.3.4 *Structural equation modelling*

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a form of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) that examines the relationship among multiple variables using a combination of three statistical techniques: multiple regression, factor analysis and path analysis for the purpose of determining the extent to which a proposed theoretical model, often expressed by a set of relationships among different constructs is supported by the collected data (Mancha & Leung, 2010). SEM is a general statistical technique occasionally referred to as 'latent variable modelling' since it reconstructs relationships between observed variables to infer latent (unobserved) variables (Gillespie & Perron, 2008). According to Mancha and Leung (2010), SEM has the following principal concepts:

- SEM statistically tests hypotheses of multiple relationships among measured variables and can explicitly account for measurement errors.
- Two distinct but interconnected models lie within a single SEM analysis: **the measurement model**, which aims to evaluate the extent to which the measured variables effectively capture the constructs in the model and, the **structural model** which aims to test simultaneously all causal relationships or links among constructs found in the overall SEM model.
- As SEM has its origin in several different multivariate methods, it uses the factor analysis technique as an exploratory technique to assess patterns within a set of variables for the purpose of identifying their underlying structure.
- The path analysis, which corresponds to the structural model within SEM analysis, allows a researcher to model complex relationships among various variables and then generate a visual representation in a path diagram.
- Multiple regression is used to learn about the relationships between several independent variables and a dependent variable using exogenous (independent) and

endogenous (dependent) latent variables. In contrast to multivariate regression analysis, SEM permits an endogenous variable to serve as both dependent and independent constructs at the same time.

- SEM is an analytical technique of preference in non-experimental research designs with the advantage of being able to test multiple relationships and account for multiple variables without compromising statistical power.

In the present study, both confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as a form of SEM and SEM goodness-of-fit statistics were applied to examine the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and satisfaction with career success factors, and to determine whether the hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile had a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model. The CFA and SEM goodness-of-fit statistics were evaluated by using the following absolute goodness-of-fit indices: the chi-square test (CMIN), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardised root mean square residual (SRMR). The following relative goodness-of-fit indices were used to evaluate the model fit: the comparative fit index (CFI) and the non-normed fit index (NNFI). In line with guidelines provided by Garson (2009), it was assumed that an adequate fit of the structural model to the measurement data existed when a CMIN/df between 1 and 5, CFI and NNFI values of .90 or higher, a RMSEA and SRMR of $\leq .10$ (model acceptance) and $\leq .08$ (good model fit) are obtained.

Research hypothesis H5 was tested by performing the SEM.

Research aim 5: To assess whether the hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile has a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model as based on the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors.

5.6.3.5 *Hierarchical moderated regression analysis*

Hierarchical moderated regression analysis is a stepwise method which empirically identifies the prediction of a third independent (moderator) variable on the relationship between a dependent/ independent variable pair depending on the value of the moderator variable (Hair et al., 2010). According to Aiken and West (1991), the hierarchical procedure permits the following:

- The variables should be entered in a pre-determined order and the earlier blocks of variables (i.e. testing main effects) are attributed with any overlapping variance shared with blocks of variables entered later (i.e. testing interaction effects).
- The hierarchical moderated regression then tests if the regression model including the interaction term increases the variance accounted for in the dependent variables; and
- A significant interaction (moderating) effect is shown by a significant change (increase) in R^2 (Aiken & West, 1991).

Since the predictor variables proposed to be interacting in the moderation statistics were categorical variables (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level), interaction was tested with factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA), which included the F statistical ratios to test different null hypotheses by computing the p -value for F (Hayes, 2009).

Research hypothesis H6 was tested by applying the hierarchical moderated regression.

Research aim 6: To assess empirically whether there is a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction.

5.6.3.6 *Tests for significant mean differences*

In the present study, more than two groups were involved for comparison, which required employing analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Wahed & Tang, 2010). ANOVA is a statistical technique that is utilised to analyse the significant differences among group means (Ostertagová, & Ostertag, 2013; Scheffé, 1999). Since the present study had more than two groups, ANOVA was initially applied to determine whether groups in the sample of the present study differed (Montgomery, 2013). When it could not be determined which groups differed, Tukey's honest significant difference (HSD), a pairwise comparison post hoc technique that examines the statistical significant differences between group means and uses the studentised range distribution to construct simultaneous confidence interval range for significant differences of all pairs of means, was employed (Oehlert, 2010).

Research hypothesis H7 was tested by first performing ANOVA (more than two groups) followed by the parametric Tukey's (HSD) test to examine the statistical significant differences between group means.

Research aim 7: To assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction factors.

5.6.4 Statistical significance level

Statistical significance is used to establish whether a statistical test of hypothesis produced a meaningful result (Riggio, 2009). Level of significance expresses the level of probability at which point the null hypothesis can be rejected with confidence and the research hypothesis can be accepted with confidence (Levin & Fox, 2011). A researcher could have two hypotheses identified as the null hypothesis (or Type I error) and alternative hypothesis (or Type II error) (Lacey, 2010). The level of significance or Type I error indicates the risk of probability in making an error (rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true) whereas, a Type II error occurs when the researcher unintentionally accepts a false null hypothesis (Salkind, 2012; Vogt, 2005). The level of significance is generally stated as $p \leq .05$ or $p < .01$ and the smaller the number, the smaller the chance of Type I error, and the more statistically significant the findings (Vogt, 2005b). Table 5.12 illustrates the different levels of statistical significance.

Table 5.12

Different Levels of Statistical Significance (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013)

Probability	level	Significance
p	.10	Less significant
p	.01 to .05	Significant
p	.001 to .01	Very significant
p	.001	Extremely significant

Effect size which provides an index for practical significance or meaning is derived by comparing the observed differences between two groups: the larger the effect size, the larger the difference between the two groups (Salkind, 2012).

5.6.4.1 Statistical significance of Pearson product-moment correlations

Where statistically significant relationships ($p \leq .05$) were established through correlation coefficients, r -values (equal to correlation magnitude) were interpreted according to the guidelines for practical effect size as follows (Cohen, 1992):

$r \geq .10$ (small practical effect);
 $r \geq .30$ (medium practical effect); and
 $r \geq .50$ (large practical effect).

In the present study, the significance level of $p \leq .05$ and $r \geq .30$ was chosen as the cut-off point for rejecting the null hypotheses.

5.6.4.2 *Statistical significance of canonical correlation analysis*

The statistical significance to interpret the canonical correlation is generally set at acceptable level of $p \leq .05$ (Hair et al., 2010). A separate test of each canonical function was computed to evaluate the significance of discriminant functions, including multivariate tests of significance for all canonical roots (Wilk's lambda, Pillai's trace, Hotelling's trace and Roy's greatest characteristic root) (Hair et al., 2010). The size of the canonical correlations was considered when deciding which canonical functions to interpret. As a rule of thumb, R_c loading $\geq .30$ guidelines have been founded on suitable sizes for ease of interpreting canonical correlations, although most decisions are based on the contributions of the findings in a research study (Hair et al., 2010). However, in the present study, due to a large number of variables, a more stringent threshold cut-off criterion value of $R_c \geq .25$ was set for interpreting canonical loadings. The redundancy index provides a realistic measure and is useful for determining the practical significance of the predictive ability of canonical relationships (Hair et al., 2010). The redundancy index of a variate is derived by multiplying two components (shared variance of the variate multiplied by the squared canonical correlation) to find the amount of shared variance as explained by the opposite variate. A high redundancy index entails a high canonical correlations and a high degree of shared variance as explained by its own variates (Hair et al., 2010).

5.6.4.3 *Statistical significance of multiple regression correlations*

The following levels of statistical significance for multiple regressions were used in the present study:

$F(p) \leq .001$;
 $F(p) \leq .01$; and
 $F(p) \leq .05$ as the cut-off for rejecting the null hypotheses.

To interpret the magnitude of the practical significance of the results, guidelines as follows were used (Cohen, 1992; Salkind, 2012):

adjusted $R^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect size);

$R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (medium practical effect size); and

$R^2 \geq .26$ (large practical effect size).

In relation to the hierarchical moderated regression results, the following effect sizes were applied to indicate the magnitude of the practical significance of the interaction effects (Cohen, 1992; Salkind, 2012):

Formula: $f^2 = R^2 / 1 - R^2$

$f^2 = .02$ (small practical effect size);

$f^2 = .15$ (medium practical effect size); and

$f^2 = .35$ (large practical effect size).

5.6.4.4 *Practical significance for tests for significant mean differences: Cohen's d for practical effect size*

Practical effect size is the magnitude of the difference between groups (Cohen, 1992; Sullivan & Feinn, 2012).

In relation to the ANOVA and Tukey's (HSD) test results, the following effect sizes were applied to indicate the magnitude of the practical significance of the interaction effects (Cohen, 1992; Sullivan & Feinn, 2012):

Formula: $d = \frac{M1 - M2}{s}$ where $M1 - M2$ is the difference between the group means (M); s is the standars deviation (SD) of either group, therefore:

$d = <.20$ (small practical effect size);

$d = >.50 - <.80$ (medium practical effect size); and

$d = >.80$ (large practical effect size).

5.6.5 Goodness of fit statistics: CFA and SEM

The chi-square value was used as it is the most frequent method of evaluating the fit of a structural model (Barret, 2007). In the present study, the chi-square statistic was used to determine how well the proposed hypothesis model fitted the observed data (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). Because chi-square is used to assess observed and predicted matrices, a value (at least $p > .05$) indicating non-significance, would point to a good fit (Gillespie & Perron, 2008; Hoe, 2008). The chi-square statistic assumes that sample sizes are at least $N > 100$ and preferably $N > 200$ and its interpretation depends on adequate sample sizes (Gillespie & Perron, 2008). The chi-square is highly sensitive to sample size especially when the observations are greater than 200 and thus the chi-square is regarded as a limitation (Hoe, 2008). Scholars, therefore recommend several alternative fit indices to overcome this limitation (Bentler & Wu, 2002; Hoe, 2008; Hooper et al., 2008). Because, the RMSEA, SRMR and CFI fit indices are among several fit indices known to be relatively independent of sample size, accurate and consistent to assess different models, because ease of interpretation is aided by a well-defined pre-set range, they were used in the present study (Hoe, 2008; Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1998).

To complement the chi-square fit test, the RMSEA is regarded as one of the most informative fit indices that can be used to accommodate the problem of sample size (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Steiger & Lind, 1980). The best advantage of the RMSEA is its ability with a certain level of confidence to estimate how well a model would fit in the observed data (MacCallum et al., 1996). Hence, the 90% CIs for fit measures were used in the hypothesis-testing framework for RMSEA (Gillespie & Perron, 2008; MacCallum et al., 1996). A RMSEA between 0.08 and 0.10 indicates a mediocre fit and 0.08 or below suggests a good fit between the hypothesised framework and the observed data (MacCallum et al., 1996; Hooper et al., 2008). However, Hu and Bentler (1999) later suggested a cut-off value close to .06 or below for RMSEA as a relatively good fit between the hypothesised model and the observed data, whereas Steiger (2007) indicated a stricter upper limit of .08.

The CFI also takes into account the sample size and is least affected by sample size (Bentler, 1990; Byrne, 1998). Statistical values of the CFI range between .90 and 1.0 with values closer to 1.0 indicating a good fit (Hooper et al., 2008). A cut-off criterion of $CFI \geq .90$ has been suggested to ensure an acceptable fit of a model (Gillespie & Perron, 2008; Hoyle, 2011; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Although in practice, a rigorous evaluation model fit value of $CFI \geq .95$ is accepted as indicative of a good fit (Hooper et al., 2008; Hoyle, 2011; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

To accommodate models of any size as well as to provide meaningful interpretation, the root mean residual (RMR), in particular the SRMR can easily be computed for large models with so many response patterns that the RMSEA cannot be computed (Maydeu-Olivares & Joe, 2014). Values for SRMR range from zero to 1.0, with a value of .08 or below indicative of acceptable model fit (Hooper et al., 2008; Maydeu-Olivares & Joe, 2014).

5.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the first six steps of the empirical investigation, namely the determination and description of the sample, choice and motivation of the psychometric inventory, administration and scoring of the psychometric inventory, formulation of research hypotheses, and to conclude the statistical processing of the data.

Chapter 6 presents a discussion of the empirical research aims 1 to 6 as stated in Table 5.11.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents a discussion of the results of several statistical analyses that have been executed to test the research hypotheses formulated for the purpose of the present research study. In the discussion section, the empirical research findings are integrated with the literature review. To realise the objectives of the research study, the statistical results are reported in terms of descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics. The results of the empirical research are presented in tables and figures.

6.1 PRELIMINARY STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

This section reports on the preliminary statistical analysis to assess the construct validity of the various scales and the measurement model. The preliminary analysis has assessed for the possibility of common method bias that could pose a threat to the interpretation of the findings. The present research has made use of self-report measures which may have resulted in potential common method variance.

6.1.1 Preliminary statistical analysis: Common method variance

Common method variance creates a potential threat of bias in behavioural science research, particularly with cross-sectional (single-informative) surveys that utilise self-report measures (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). The CALIS procedure in SAS/STAT version 13.1 (2013) was utilised to conduct a one-factor confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (i.e., all items of the psychosocial profile inventory loading onto one factor) and Harman's one-factor solution to assess for common method variance in each measure. The results of the CFAs and Harman's one-factor test for each measure are summarised in Table 6.1. An RMSEA and SRMR of $\leq .10$ (model acceptance) and $\leq .08$ (good model fit) are obtained (Hooper et al., 2008). Likewise, a CFI value obtaining cut-off values of 0.90 or higher is recommended as an acceptable model fit (Gillespie & Perron, 2008; Hoyle, 2011; Hu & Bentler, 1999). The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), which compares the various CFA models, has also been computed. Low AIC values are viewed to suggest a more acceptable fit (Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Table 6.1

Testing for Common Method Variance: Factor Solutions

Measuring instrument	Harman's one-factor test: percentage variance explained by a single factor	Confirmatory factor analysis (one-factor solution)
The Assessing emotions scale (AES) Construct: emotional intelligence	7.69%	CMIN/df = 5.15*** RMSEA = .08 SRMR = .08 CFI = .60 AIC = 2679.80
Career adapt-abilities scale (CAAS) Construct: career adaptability	10.81%	CMIN/df = 10.06*** RMSEA = .12 SRMR = .08 CFI = .72 AIC = 2630.52
Psychosocial career preoccupations scale (PCPS) Construct: psychosocial career preoccupations	10.75%	CMIN/df = 12.64*** RMSEA = .14 SRMR = .09 CFI = .68 AIC = 3282.23
New general self-efficacy (NGSE) scale Construct: self-efficacy	5.11%	CMIN/df = 9.53*** RMSEA = .10 SRMR = .04 CFI = .94 AIC = 222.56
Perceived organisational support scale (SPOS) Construct: perceived organisational support	15.76%	CMIN/df = 4.76*** RMSEA = .08 SRMR = .06 CFI = .81 AIC = 2970.07
Multidimensional scale of perceived social support (MSPSS) Construct: social support	6.99%	CMIN/df = 68.27*** RMSEA = .33 SRMR = .20 CFI = .53 AIC = 3734.64
Career satisfaction scale (CSS)	3.77%	CMIN/df = 18.91***

Measuring instrument	Harman's one-factor test: percentage variance explained by a single factor	Confirmatory factor analysis (one-factor solution)
Construct: career satisfaction		RMSEA = .15 SRMR = .03 CFI = .96 AIC = 114.56

Note: N = 606, *** $p \leq .000$

The one-factor solution for the AES showed that the overall factor accounted for only 7.69% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the four AES sub-scales onto a single factor in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well with a CFI value well below .90 (chi-square/df ratio = 5.15; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .08; CFI = .60; AIC = 2679.80).

In terms of the CAAS, the one-factor solution showed that the overall factor accounted for only 10.81% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the four CAAS sub-scales onto a single factor in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well with a RMSEA above .10 and CFI value below .90 (chi-square/df ratio = 10.06; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .12; SRMR = .08; CFI = .72; AIC = 2630.52).

The one-factor solution for the PCPS showed that the overall factor accounted for only 10.75% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the three PCPS sub-scales onto a single factor in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well with a RMSEA above .10 and CFI value well below .90 (chi-square/df ratio = 12.64; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .14; SRMR = .09; CFI = .68; AIC = 3282.23).

In terms of the NGSE, the one-factor solution showed that the overall factor accounted for only 5.11% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the NGSE onto a single factor in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor yielded a less than acceptable model fit with a RMSEA of .10 (Chi-square/df ratio = 9.53; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .10; SRMR = .04; CFI = .94; AIC = 222.56). The NGSE is a single-factor scale and these findings indicate that model improvement needs to be done to improve the validity of the scale.

The one-factor solution for the SPOS showed that the overall factor accounted for only 15.76% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the SPOS onto a single factor in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well with the

CFI value below .90 (chi-square/df ratio = 4.76; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .06; CFI = .81; AIC = 2970.07). The SPOS is a single-factor scale and these findings indicate that model improvement needs to be done to improve the validity of the scale.

In terms of the MSPSS, the one-factor solution showed that the overall factor accounted for only 6.99% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the three MSPSS sub-scales onto a single factor in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well with both the RMSEA and SRMR above .10 and CFI value well below .90 (chi-square/df ratio = 68.27; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .33; SRMR = .20; CFI = .53; AIC = 3734.64).

Lastly, the one-factor solution for the CSS showed that the overall factor accounted for only 3.77% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the CSS onto a single factor in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well with a RMSEA above .10 (chi-square/df ratio = 18.91; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .15; SRMR = .03; CFI = .96; AIC = 114.56). The CSS is a single-factor scale and these findings indicate that model improvement needs to be done to improve the validity of the scale.

Generally, in accordance with the guidelines of Podsakoff et al. (2012), the one-factor results for the various scales indicated that common method variance did not pose a serious bias threat to the present research findings.

6.1.2 Preliminary statistical analysis: Assessing the construct validity of the measurement model

The construct validity of each scale was assessed by conducting a CFA on each scale in order to obtain the best model fit. The CALIS procedure in SAS/STAT version 13.1 (2013) was utilised to perform the CFA.

Maximum likelihood estimation was utilised in conducting the CFA and two competing measurement models were performed for each scale to test the validity of the factor structure for each scale. First, a model with the relevant original sub-scale factors for each scales was utilised. Second, the Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) optimisation procedure was used to optimise the model fit and to determine whether the data fit improved after removing problematic items in each of the measurement scales (by means of the CALIS procedure in SAS). The main advantage of the LM optimisation procedure is that it uses information about the first and second results of the fit-statistic as a function of the thawed parameter values to estimate the

location of the fit-statistic minimum (Chandra X-ray center, 2007). The measurement models are reported in Table 6.2.

The measurement models are reported in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2

Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Measurement Models of the Scales

Measurement scale	Measurement model 1 (original factor model)	Measurement model 2 (optimised factor model) (items with low reliabilities removed)
Assessing emotions scale (AES)	Four-factor solution	Four-factor solution
Construct: emotional intelligence	CMIN/df = 3.68***	CMIN/df = 1.94***
Sub-constructs:	RMSEA = .07	RMSEA = .04
• perception of emotions	SRMR = .07	SRMR = .05
• managing own emotions	CFI = .73	CFI = .95
• managing others emotions	AIC = 1945.55	AIC = 495.78
• utilisation of emotions		
Career adapt-abilities scale (CAAS)	Four-factor solution	Four-factor solution
Construct: career adaptability	CMIN/df = 4.96***	CMIN/df = 3.60***
Sub-constructs:	RMSEA = .08	RMSEA = .06
• career concern	SRMR = .06	SRMR = .06
• career control	CFI = .88	CFI = .92
• career curiosity	AIC = 1329.34	AIC = 977.07
• career confidence		
Psychosocial career preoccupations scale (PCPS)	Three-factor solution	Three-factor solution
Construct: psychosocial career preoccupations	CMIN/df = 8.24***	CMIN/df = 3.72***
Sub-constructs:	RMSEA = .11	RMSEA = .07
• career establishment	SRMR = .08	SRMR = .05
• career adaptation	CFI = .80	CFI = .95
• career work/life adjustment	AIC = 2154.90	AIC = 749.22
New general self-efficacy (NGSE) scale	One-factor solution	One-factor solution
Construct: self-efficacy	CMIN/df = 9.53***	CMIN/df = 3.43***
	RMSEA = .12	RMSEA = .06

Measurement scale	Measurement model 1 (original factor model)	Measurement model 2 (optimised factor model) (items with low reliabilities removed)
Perceived organisational support scale (SPOS) Construct: perceived organisational support	SRMR = .04	SRMR = .02
	CFI = .94	CFI = .99
	AIC = 222.56	AIC = 93.52
	One-factor solution	One-factor solution
	CMIN/df = 4.76***	CMIN/df = 2.73***
	RMSEA = .08	RMSEA = .05
	SRMR = .06	SRMR = .05
Multidimensional scale of perceived social support (MSPSS) Construct: social support Sub-constructs: • family • friends • significant others	CFI = .81	CFI = .92
	AIC = 2970.07	AIC = 1552.88
	Three-factor solution	Three-factor solution
	CMIN/df = 11.36***	CMIN/df = 3.77***
	RMSEA = .13	RMSEA = .07
	SRMR = .04	SRMR = .02
	CFI = .93	CFI = .99
Career satisfaction scale (CSS) Construct: career satisfaction	AIC = 633.23	AIC = 230.36
	One-factor solution	One factor-solution
	CMIN/df = 18.91***	CMIN/df = 2.71***
	RMSEA = .15	RMSEA = .02
	SRMR = .03	SRMR = .01
	CFI = .96	CFI = .99
	AIC = 114.56	AIC = 32.86

Note: N = 606, *** $p \leq .000$

The CFA for the AES (see Table 6.2) shows that, after removing problematic items, the fit indices yielded an acceptable model fit (chi-square/df ratio = 1.94; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .04; SRMR = .05; CFI = .95; AIC = 495.78). The AIC and RMSEA values of the optimised model were lower than the initial model (AIC = 1945.55; RMSEA = .07), indicating a better model fit of the data.

As reflected in Table 6.2, the CFA for the CAAS shows that, after removing problematic items, the fit indices yielded an acceptable model fit (chi-square/df ratio = 3.60; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .06; CFI = .92; AIC = 977.07). The AIC and RMSEA values of the optimised

model were lower than the initial model (AIC = 1329.34; RMSEA = .08), indicating a better model fit of the data.

The CFA for the PCPS (see Table 6.2) indicates that, after removing problematic items, the fit indices yielded an acceptable model fit (chi-square/df ratio = 3.72; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .05; CFI = .95; AIC = 749.22). The AIC and RMSEA values of the optimised model were lower than the initial model (AIC = 2154.90; RMSEA = .11), indicating a better model fit of the data.

As reflected in Table 6.2, the CFA for the NGSE indicates that, after removing problematic items, the fit indices yielded an acceptable model fit (chi-square/df ratio = 3.43; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .02; CFI = .99; AIC = 93.52). The AIC and RMSEA values of the optimised model were lower than the initial model (AIC = 222.56; RMSEA = .12), indicating a better model fit of the data.

The CFA for the SPOS (see Table 6.2) indicates that, after removing problematic items, the fit indices yielded an acceptable model fit (chi-square/df ratio = 2.73; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .05; CFI = .92; AIC = 1552.88). The AIC and RMSEA values of the optimised model were lower than the initial model (AIC = 2970.07; RMSEA = .08), indicating a better model fit of the data.

As reflected in Table 6.2, the CFA for the MSPSS indicates that, after removing problematic items, the fit indices yielded an acceptable model fit (chi-square/df ratio = 3.77; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .02; CFI = .99; AIC = 230.36). The AIC and RMSEA values of the optimised model were lower than the initial model (AIC = 633.23; RMSEA = .13), indicating a better model fit of the data.

The CFA for the CSS (see Table 6.2) indicates that, after removing problematic items, the fit indices yielded an acceptable model fit (chi-square/df ratio = 2.71; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .02; SRMR = .01; CFI = .99; AIC = 32.86). The AIC and RMSEA values of the optimised model were lower than the initial model (AIC = 114.56; RMSEA = .15), indicating a better model fit of the data.

In summary, the CFA suggested an acceptable model fit for all the variable constructs (AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and the CSS). It was concluded that the various scales had acceptable construct validity for further statistical analyses.

The next step was to assess the construct validity of the overall measurement model, which included all the constructs of the various scales. The best fit model data of each scale was used as input to the confirmatory factor analyses. Table 6.3 summarises the fit statistics of the model that was tested. The measurement model had an acceptable fit with the data (CMIN/df = 4.16; $p = .000$; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .06; CFI = .92; AIC= 534.67), implying that the model had construct validity and differentiated well between the various scales (convergent and divergent validity). The measurement model data was used as input to further statistical analyses.

Table 6.3

Measurement Model: Fit Statistics

Model	CMIN	DF	CMIN/DF	p	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	AIC
1	440.67	106	4.16	.000	.07	.06	.92	534.67

Note: CMIN (X^2) = chi-square; df = degrees of freedom; chi-square/RMSEA significant at $p = .000$; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean square residual; CFI = comparative fit index; AIC = akaike information criterion.

6.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics deals with meaningfully descriptive numerical facts or raw data in either table or figure format (Salkind, 2012). This section discusses the three steps relevant to descriptive statistics, namely:

- Assessing the internal consistency reliability of the measuring instruments by means of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the composite reliability coefficient (a less biased coefficient of reliability);
- The unidimensionality of measuring instruments by means of the Rasch analysis; and
- Determining the means and SDs, including kurtosis and skewness of both the categorical data and frequency data.

6.2.1 Reporting on and interpretation of scale reliabilities: Rasch analyses and internal consistency reliability coefficients of the measuring instruments

In this section, the procedure SAS (7BDAT) version 0.5 (2013) was utilised to calculate the internal consistency reliabilities of the following measurement instruments: AES (Schutte et al., 2009), CAAS (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), PCPS (Coetzee, 2016), NGSE (Chen et al., 2001),

SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986), MSPSS (Zimet et al., 1988), and the CSS (Greenhaus et al., 1990). The best fit measurement model data of each scale was used as input.

In addition to the Rasch reliability coefficient and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, the composite reliability coefficient was also computed for each measure, because CFA and SEM were relevant to the present research study. Lately, the value of the alpha coefficient in psychological research has attracted criticism and researchers have pointed to its limitations, especially in terms of SEM (McCrae, Kurtz, Yamagata, & Terracciano, 2011; Raykov, 2012; Van Zyl, 2014). In the present research study, the recommended computation of the composite reliability coefficient, which corrects for the demonstrated general over-or under-estimation property of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, was also done and the threshold value of $\geq .70$ was regarded as acceptable internal consistency reliability (Raykov, 2012).

6.2.1.1 Assessing emotions scale (AES)

The AES (Schutte et al., 2009) was used to measure the emotional intelligence levels of the research participants. Table 6.4 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale and its subscales.

Table 6.4

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

Scale dimension	Average measure (SD)	Infit (SD)	Outfit (SD)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Raykov's rho) ω
Perception of emotions							
Person	1.37 (1.26)	1.03 (.77)	1.02 (.78)	2.30	.84	.84	.80
Item	.00 (.59)	1.00 (.19)	1.02 (.22)	9.61	.99		
Managing own emotions							
Person	1.83 (1.17)	1.02 (.69)	1.04 (.78)	1.86	.78	.81	.77
Item	.00 (.68)	1.05 (.26)	1.04 (.23)	10.43	.99		
Managing others' emotions							
Person	1.27 (.90)	1.03 (.73)	1.01 (.73)	1.46	.68	.70	.47
Item	.00 (.80)	1.01 (.23)	1.01 (.24)	13.72	.99		
Utilisation of emotions							
Person	1.27 (.90)	1.03 (.73)	1.01 (.73)	1.46	.68	.70	.63
Item	.00 (.80)	1.01 (.23)	1.01 (.24)	13.72	.99		
Overall emotional intelligence							
Person	1.24 (.77)	1.06 (.57)	1.05 (.57)	2.99	.90	.91	.87
Item	.00 (.66)	1.03 (.25)	1.05 (.27)	11.67	.99		

Notes: N = 606

Table 6.4 summarises the Rasch statistics for the AES scale. Most of the AES sub-scales obtained acceptable internal consistency reliability coefficients ($>.70$), showing that the scale items had internal consistency. Table 6.4 shows acceptable Rasch item reliability for the overall AES (.99) as well the four subscales (.99), indicating that the difficulty levels of the items were well distributed among the measured latent variables and that items of the scale differentiated well on the measured variable of emotional intelligence. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the AES scale ranged between ($\alpha = .70$) and ($\alpha = .91$) which were within the guidelines of $\geq .70$ (Hair et al., 2010). However, the composite (omega) reliabilities for the AES dimensions ranged between ($\omega = .47$) and ($\omega = .87$). Table 6.5 indicates low composite (omega) reliability for 'managing others' emotions' subscale ($\omega = .47$) and 'utilisation of emotions' ($\omega = .63$). This indicates that 'managing others' emotions' and 'utilisation of emotions' and lie items have less internal consistency than the other emotional intelligence subscales. This could be attributed to a well-known phenomenon of social desirability and acquiescence responding (Paulhus & Vazire, 2009). Because self-reports give the respondent's own view or self-observation, respondents are inclined to social desirability bias, a phenomenon in which participants seek to present themselves in a favourable manner (Hawkshead & Krousel-Wood, 2007; Triki et al., 2015). Similarly, with acquiescent responding, participants tend to agree with statements without regard to their content such as those statements on dichotomous response formats (agree-disagree) (Paulhus & Vazire, 2009).

The Rasch analysis suggests that the lower reliability coefficient might have been attributable to low person separation indices of these subscales which could be attributed to potential measurement error issues. Measurement error is the difference between the observed and true values that could occur as a result of indirect measures in self-report instruments, questionnaires or participants (e.g. social desirability, midpoint reporting or acquiescence) which could lead to incorrect inferences (Althubaiti, 2016; Loken & Gelman, 2017).

Table 6.4 shows that item separation (≥ 9.61) for the overall AES and person separation (≥ 2.30) were adequate in comparison to the guidelines of at least 2.00 (Bond & Fox, 2015), indicating that useful data was obtained from the AES. However, the person separation indices for the subscales 'managing own emotions' (1.86), 'managing others' emotions' (1.46) and 'utilisation of emotions' (1.46) were somewhat lower than the proposed guideline of 2.00. Low person separation indicates that these subscales did not separate or discriminate well between the respondents or that the respondents misunderstood the items, or that they were reluctant to answer the questions with the required honesty (Bond & Fox, 2015).

The 'managing own emotions' subscale indicated the highest person average measure (1.83; $SD = 1.17$), whereas sub-scales 'managing others' emotions' (1.27; $SD .90$) and 'utilisation of emotions' (1.27; $SD .90$) both indicated similar lower person average measure. The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, demonstrating that the responses neither under-fitted (≥ 1.30) nor over-fitted ($\leq .70$). This indicates that participants responded to the items of each sub-scale consistently. The out-fit statistics were all below 2.00, showing that the scale provided useful information. Overall, the internal consistency reliability of the AES can be considered adequate for the purpose of the present study.

6.2.1.2 Career adapt-abilities scale (CAAS)

The CAAS (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) was used to measure the career adaptability levels of the research participants. Table 6.5 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale and its subscales.

Table 6.5

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)

Scale dimension	Average measure (SD)	Infit (SD)	Outfit (SD)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Raykov's rho) ω
Concern							
Person	1.36 (1.80)	.99 (.92)	.99 (.94)	2.41	.85	.89	.89
Item	.00 (.39)	.99 (.14)	.99 (.14)	5.48	.97		
Control							
Person	1.65 (1.42)	1.02 (.87)	.98 (.83)	1.90	.78	.81	.83
Item	.00 (.79)	.99 (.16)	.98 (.18)	12.06	.99		
Curiosity							
Person	1.23 (1.80)	1.00 (.85)	1.00 (.85)	2.52	.86	.88	.89
Item	.00 (.54)	.99 (.15)	1.00 (.17)	8.04	.98		
Confidence							
Person	2.47 (2.00)	.99 (.91)	.99 (.92)	2.37	.85	.90	.92
Item	.00 (.56)	.99 (.16)	.99 (.16)	6.63	.98		
Overall scale							
Person	1.34 (1.23)	1.02 (.62)	1.01 (.60)	3.76	.93	.94	.95
Item	.00 (.54)	.99 (.13)	1.01 (.15)	9.12	.99		

Notes: N = 606

The CAAS scale and subscales have obtained high reliabilities, which suggests that the scale items have internal consistency. As reflected in Table 6.5, acceptable Rasch item reliability was obtained for the overall CAAS ($\alpha = .99$) and the four subscales ($\alpha \geq .98$), indicating that the items of the scale differentiated well among the measured variables. The Cronbach's alpha

coefficient for the CAAS scale ranged between ($\alpha = .81$) and ($\alpha = .94$). Likewise, the composite (omega) reliabilities for the CAAS dimensions ranged between ($\omega = .83$) and ($\omega = .95$). Therefore, the internal consistency reliability of the CAAS can be considered adequate for the purpose of the present study.

The overall CAAS scale showed adequate item separation (≥ 5.48) and person separation (≥ 2.37) indicating that useful data was obtained from the CAAS scale. However, the person separation indices for the sub-scales control (1.90), were somewhat lower than the proposed guideline of 2.00. This indicates that this sub-scale did not separate or discriminate well between the respondents, or that the respondents misunderstood the items, or that they were reluctant to answer the questions with the required honesty (Bond & Fox, 2015).

The confidence subscale indicated the highest person average measure (2.47; $SD = 2.00$), whereas the 'curiosity' subscale showed the lowest person average measure (1.23; $SD = 1.80$). The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, demonstrating that the responses neither under-fitted (≥ 1.30) nor over-fitted ($\leq .70$). This indicates that participants responded to the items of each sub-scale consistently as well as provided useful information. The outfit statistics were all below 2.00, showing that the scale provided valuable information.

6.2.1.3 *Psychosocial career preoccupations scale (PCPS)*

The PCPS (Coetzee, 2016) was used to measure the psychosocial career preoccupations levels of the research participants. Table 6.6 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale and its subscales.

Table 6.6

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Scale (PCPS)

Scale dimension	Average measure (SD)	Infit (SD)	Outfit (SD)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Raykov's rho) ω
Career establishment							
Person	.55 (1.28)	1.05 (.64)	1.03 (.70)	3.23	.91	.93	.94
Item	.00 (.52)	1.02 (.35)	1.03 (.44)	10.79	.99		
Adaptation preoccupations							
Person	1.83 (1.17)	1.02 (.69)	1.04 (.78)	1.86	.78	.81	.89
Item	.00 (.68)	1.05 (.26)	1.04 (.23)	10.43	.99		
Work/life adjustment							
Person	1.27 (.90)	1.03 (.73)	1.01 (.73)	1.46	.68	.70	.71
Item	.00 (.80)	1.01 (.23)	1.01 (.24)	13.72	.99		
Overall scale							
Person	-.24 (1.46)	.97 (.97)	.97 (.96)	2.20	.83	.90	.94
Item	.00 (.42)	.99 (.23)	.97 (.18)	7.51	.98		

Notes: N = 606

The PCPS and the three subscales obtained high reliabilities, suggesting that the scale items had acceptable internal consistency reliability coefficients ($>.70$). Table 6.6 reflects acceptable Rasch item reliabilities for the overall PCPS ($\geq .98$) and the three subscales ($\geq .99$), indicating that the items of the scale differentiated well among the measured variables. The Cronbach alpha coefficient PCPS scores ranged between ($\alpha = .70$) and ($\alpha = .93$), which are within the guidelines of $\geq .70$ (Hair et al., 2010). Likewise, the composite (omega) reliabilities for the PCPS dimensions ranged between ($\omega = .71$) and ($\omega = .94$). The internal consistency reliability of the PCPS can be considered adequate for the purpose of the present study.

Table 6.6 shows that the item separation (≥ 7.51) and person separation (≥ 2.20) for the overall PCPS were adequate in comparison to the guidelines of at least (≥ 2.00) (Bond & Fox, 2015), indicating that useful data was obtained from the PCPS. However, the person separation indices for the subscales 'adaptation preoccupation' (1.86), and 'work/life adjustment' (1.46) were somewhat lower than the proposed guideline of 2.00. This indicates that the respondents potentially misunderstood the items within these sub-scales, or that they were reluctant to answer the questions with the required honesty (Bond & Fox, 2015).

The 'adaptation preoccupation' subscale showed the highest person average measure (1.83; $SD = 1.17$), whereas the subscale 'career establishment' (.55; $SD = 1.28$) showed the lowest person average measure. The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, indicating that the

responses neither under-fitted (≥ 1.30) nor over-fitted ($\leq .70$). This indicated that the responses of the participants were consistent and provided valuable information. The out-fit statistics were all below 2.00, showing that the scale provided useful information.

6.2.1.4 New general self-efficacy (NGSE) scale

The NGSE scale (Chen et al., 2001) was used to measure the self-efficacy levels of the research participants. Table 6.7 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale.

Table 6.7

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the New General Self-Efficacy (NGSE) Scale

Scale dimension	Average measure (SD)	Infit (SD)	Outfit (SD)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Raykov's rho) ω
Overall scale							
Person	3.39 (1.83)	.98 (.81)	.97 (.26)	2.12	.82	.93	.92
Item	.00 (.35)	1.00 (.25)	.95 (.24)	3.40	.92		

Notes: N = 606

The NGSE shows acceptable internal consistency reliability coefficients ($>.70$). Table 6.7 shows acceptable Rasch item reliability for the overall NGSE (.92), indicating that the items of the scale differentiated well on the measured variable of self-efficacy. Likewise, both the Cronbach alpha coefficient ($\alpha = .93$) and the composite (omega) reliability ($\omega = .92$) were high.

The item separation (2.12) and person separation (3.40) for the overall NGSE scale were adequate in comparison to the guidelines of at least (> 2.00) (Bond & Fox, 2015). This indicated that respondents would most likely have provided similar responses in other situations.

The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, indicating that the responses neither under-fitted (≥ 1.30) nor over-fitted ($\leq .70$). This indicated that the responses of the participants were consistent and provided valuable data. The outfit statistics were below 2.00, showing that the scale provided useful information.

6.2.1.5 Survey of perceived organisational support (SPOS) scale

The SPOS scale (Eisenberger et al., 1986) was used to measure the perceived organisational support levels of the research participants. Table 6.8 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale.

Table 6.8

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support (SPOS)

Scale dimension	Average measure (SD)	Infit (SD)	Outfit (SD)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Raykov's rho) ω
Overall scale							
Person	.30 (.68)	1.13 (.74)	1.13 (.75)	4.72	.96	.96	.96
Item	.00 (.32)	1.03 (.27)	1.13 (.33)	10.07	.99		

Notes: N = 606

The SPOS shows acceptable internal consistency reliability coefficients ($> .70$). Table 6.8 shows acceptable Rasch item reliability for the overall SPOS (.99), indicating that the items of the scale differentiated well on the measured variable of perceived organisational support. Likewise, both the Cronbach alpha coefficient ($\alpha = .96$) and the composite (omega) reliability ($\omega = .96$) were high.

The item separation (10.07) and person separation (4.72) for the overall SPOS were adequate in comparison to the guidelines of at least (> 2.00) (Bond & Fox, 2015), indicating that respondents would most likely have provided similar responses in other situations.

The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, indicating that the responses neither under-fitted (≥ 1.30) nor over-fitted ($\leq .70$). This indicated that the responses of the participants were consistent and provided valuable data. The outfit statistics were below 2.00, showing that the scale provided useful information.

6.2.1.6 Multidimensional scale of perceived social support (MSPSS)

The MSPSS (Zimet et al., 1988) was used to measure the social support levels of the research participants. Table 6.9 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale and its subscales.

Table 6.9

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS)

Scale dimension	Average measure (SD)	Infit (SD)	Outfit (SD)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Raykov's rho) ω
Family							
Person	1.87 (1.85)	1.02 (1.24)	1.01 (1.25)	2.18	.83	.93	.93
Item	.00 (.33)	1.01 (.16)	1.01 (.23)	4.74	.96		
Friends							
Person	2.36 (2.96)	.94 (1.42)	.94 (1.43)	3.02	.90	.95	.95
Item	.00 (.23)	.99 (.10)	.97 (.14)	2.79	.89		
Significant others							
Person	2.35 (2.54)	.92 (1.37)	.93 (1.37)	2.68	.88	.97	.96
Item	.00 (.25)	1.02 (.19)	.93 (.16)	2.65	.88		
Overall scale							
Person	1.04 (1.02)	1.02 (.88)	1.03 (.93)	2.53	.86	.94	.82
Item	.00 (.21)	1.10 (.13)	1.03 (.10)	4.67	.96		

Notes: N = 606

The MSPSS and the three subscales obtained high reliabilities, suggesting that the scale items had acceptable internal consistency reliability coefficients ($>.70$). Table 6.9 reflects acceptable Rasch item reliabilities for the overall MSPSS ($\geq .96$) and the three subscales ($\geq .88$), indicating that the items of the scale differentiated well among the measured variables.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the MSPSS scale ranged between ($\alpha = .93$) and ($\alpha = .97$). Likewise, the composite (omega) reliabilities for the MSPSS dimensions ranged between ($\omega = .82$) and ($\omega = .96$). The internal consistency reliability of the MSPSS could be considered adequate for the purpose of the present study.

The overall MSPSS showed adequate item separation (≥ 2.65) and person separation (≥ 2.18) in comparison to the guidelines of at least (> 2.00) (Bond & Fox, 2015). This indicated that respondents would most likely have provided similar responses in other situations.

The 'friends' sub-scale showed the highest person average measure (2.36; $SD = 2.96$), whereas the 'family' subscale showed the lowest person average measure (1.87; $SD = 1.85$). The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, demonstrating that the responses neither under-fitted (≥ 1.30) nor over-fitted ($\leq .70$). This indicated that participants responded to the items of each subscale consistently and also provided useful data. The outfit statistics were all below 2.00, showing that the scale provided useful information.

6.2.1.7 Career satisfaction scale (CSS)

The CSS (Greenhaus et al., 1990) was used to measure the career satisfaction levels of the research participants. Table 6.10 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale.

Table 6.10

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS)

Scale dimension	Average measure (SD)	Infit (SD)	Outfit (SD)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Raykov's rho) ω
Overall scale							
Person	1.20 (2.04)	.96 (1.19)	.95 (1.21)	2.27	.96	.92	.92
Item	.00 (.35)	1.00 (.24)	.95 (.24)	4.62	.98		

Notes: N = 606

The CSS shows acceptable internal consistency reliability coefficients ($> .70$). Table 6.10 shows acceptable Rasch item reliability for the overall CSS (.98), indicating that the items of the scale differentiated well on the measured variable of career satisfaction. Likewise, both the Cronbach alpha coefficient ($\alpha = .92$) and the composite (omega) reliability ($\omega = .92$) were high.

The item separation (4.62) and person separation (2.27) for the overall CSS were adequate in comparison to the guidelines of at least (> 2.00) (Bond & Fox, 2015). This indicates that respondents would most likely have provided similar responses in other situations.

The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, indicating that the responses neither under-fitted (≥ 1.30) nor over-fitted ($\leq .70$). This indicates that the responses of the participants were consistent and provided useful data. The outfit statistics were below 2.00, showing that the scale provided valuable information.

In summary, the following core conclusions were drawn:

- Overall, all the scales (AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS) obtained acceptable internal consistency reliability coefficients ($> .70$). However, managing others' emotions, utilisation of emotions and work/life adjustment subscales showed somewhat lower internal consistency reliability coefficients because of low person separation indices.

- The subscales for managing own emotions, managing others' emotions, utilisation of emotions, control, adaptation preoccupation and work/life adjustment reflected somewhat lower person separation indices than the proposed guideline of 2.00.

To conclude, the mean item and person infit statistics of all the measures were either close to or higher than 1.00. This indicates that the mean item fit and person fit showed that participants provided responses in a useful and logical manner (Bond & Fox, 2007). The outfit statistics of all the measures were below 2.00, indicating that the measures provided useful data.

The AES (Schutte et al., 2009), CAAS (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), PCPS (Coetzee, 2016), NGSE scale (Chen et al., 2001), SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986), MSPSS scale (Zimet et al., 1988), and the (CSS) (Greenhaus et al., 1990) showed acceptable internal consistency and scale reliability for the purpose of the present study.

The results were taken into account in the statistical analyses and interpretation of the findings. Overall, it was concluded that the various scales had acceptable construct validity and reliability for the purposes of further statistical analyses.

6.2.2 Reporting of means and standard deviations

This section provides the descriptive information on each of the sub-scales of the seven measuring instruments. The means and SDs for the AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS are reported below. The best fit measurement model data of each scale was used as input.

6.2.2.1 Mean and standard deviation: Assessing emotions scale (AES)

The AES is scored by obtaining a mean score across all the items within each of the four sub-scales. A mean score is obtained by summing all the individual scores for each subscale and then dividing the total score for each subscale by four. Each individual subscale can range from one to five.

Table 6.11 shows the descriptive information for the four construct variables on the AES scale. The descriptive data included the minimum score, maximum score, mean, SD, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.11

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
AES	2.33	5.00	3.95	.41	-.30	.40
Perception of emotions	1.60	5.00	3.83	.56	-.33	.48
Managing own emotions	1.78	5.00	4.10	.53	-.71	.81
Managing others' emotions	2.25	5.00	3.94	.49	-.39	.16
Utilisation of emotion	2.17	5.00	3.92	.53	-.31	-.15

Note: N = 606

Table 6.11 shows that the mean scores ranged from 3.83 to 4.10, indicating relatively high mean scores. The sample of participants obtained the highest score on the 'managing own emotions' ($M = 4.10$; $SD = .53$) subscale and the lowest mean score on the 'perception of emotions' ($M = 3.83$; $SD = .56$). The SDs ranged from .49 to .68.

The skewness values for the AES ranged between -.31 and -.71, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Howell, 2008). Similarly, the kurtosis values for the AES ranged between -.15 and .81, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Levin & Fox, 2011).

6.2.2.2 Means and standard deviations: Career adapt-abilities scale (CAAS)

The CAAS is scored by obtaining a mean score across all the items within each of the four subscales. A mean score is obtained by summing all the individual scores for each subscale and then dividing the total score for each subscale by four. Each individual subscale can range from one to five.

Table 6.12 shows the descriptive information for the four construct variables on the CAAS scale. The descriptive data included the minimum score, maximum score, mean, SD, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.12

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
CAAS	1.88	5.00	3.86	.63	-.41	.14
Control	1.50	5.00	3.92	.68	-.61	.36
Concern	1.17	5.00	3.79	.79	-.47	-.03
Curiosity	1.17	5.00	3.65	.81	-.25	-.58
Confidence	1.17	5.00	4.07	.70	-.77	.68

Note: N = 606

Table 6.12 shows that the mean scores ranged from 3.65 to 4.07, indicating relatively high mean scores. The sample of participants obtained the highest score on the 'confidence' ($M = 4.07$; $SD = .70$) subscale and the lowest mean score on the 'curiosity' ($M = 3.65$; $SD = .81$) subscale. The SDs ranged from .68 to .81.

The skewness values for the CAAS ranged between -.25 and -.77, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Howell, 2008). Similarly, the kurtosis values for the CAAS ranged between -.03 and .68, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Levin & Fox, 2011).

6.2.2.3 Means and standard deviations: Psychosocial career preoccupations scale (PCPS)

The PCPS is scored by obtaining a mean score across all the items within each of the three subscales. A mean score is obtained by summing all the individual scores for each sub-scale and then dividing the total score for each subscale by three. Each individual subscale can range from one to five. High mean scores imply high career concerns.

Table 6.13 shows the descriptive information for the three construct variables on the PCPS scale. The descriptive data included the minimum score, maximum score, mean, SD, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.13

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Scale (PCPS)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
PCPS	1.00	4.96	3.23	.87	-.47	-.43
Career establishment preoccupations	1.00	5.00	3.46	.99	-.63	-.42
Career adaptation preoccupations	1.00	5.00	2.80	1.18	.20	-1.02
Work/life adjustment preoccupations	1.00	5.00	3.08	.87	-.08	-.51

Note: N = 606

Table 6.13 shows that the mean scores ranged from 2.80 to 3.46, indicating relatively low to mid-range mean scores, implying relatively low career concerns. The sample of participants obtained the highest score on the 'career establishment preoccupations' ($M = 3.46$; $SD = .99$) subscale and the lowest mean score on the 'career adaptation preoccupations' ($M = 2.80$; $SD = 1.18$). The SDs ranged from .87 to 1.18.

The skewness values for the PCPS ranged between -.08 and -.63, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Howell, 2008). Similarly, the kurtosis values for the PCPS ranged between -.42 and -1.02, thereby falling outside the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Levin & Fox, 2011).

6.2.2.4 Means and standard deviations: New general self-efficacy (NGSE) scale

The scale can range from one to five. Table 6.14 shows the descriptive information for the NGSE scale. The descriptive data includes the minimum score, maximum score, mean, SD, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.14

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the New General Self-Efficacy (NGSE) Scale

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
NGSE	1.00	5.00	4.48	.56	-2.06	7.99

Note: N = 606

Table 6.14 shows that the NGSE mean score value was 4.48, indicating a relatively high mean score. The skewness value for the NGSE was -2.06, thereby falling outside the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Howell, 2008). Similarly, the kurtosis value was 7.99, thereby falling outside the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Levin & Fox, 2011).

6.2.2.5 Means and standard deviations: Survey of perceived organisational support (SPOS) scale

The SPOS scale can range from one to six. Table 6.15 shows the descriptive information for the SPOS scale. The descriptive data includes the minimum score, maximum score, mean, SD, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.15

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support (SPOS) Scale

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
SPOS	1.11	6.00	4.65	1.16	-.33	-.32

Note: N = 606

Table 6.15 shows that the SPOS mean score value was 4.65, indicating a relatively high mean score. The skewness value for the SPOS was -.33, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Howell, 2008). Similarly, the kurtosis value was -.32, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Levin & Fox, 2011).

6.2.2.6 Means and standard deviations: Multidimensional scale of perceived social support (MSPSS) scale

The MSPSS is scored by obtaining a mean score across all the items within each of the three sub-scales. A mean score is obtained by summing all the individual scores for each subscale and then dividing the total score for each subscale by three. Each individual subscale can range from one to seven.

Table 6.16 shows the descriptive information for the three construct variables on the MSPSS scale. The descriptive data included the minimum score, maximum score, mean, SD, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.16

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS) scale

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
MSPSS	1.00	7.00	5.81	1.14	-1.37	2.12
Family	1.00	7.00	5.89	1.33	-1.68	2.88
Friends	1.00	7.00	5.57	1.33	-1.13	1.30
Significant others	1.00	7.00	5.97	1.50	-1.89	3.03

Note: N = 606

Table 6.16 shows that the mean scores ranged from 5.57 to 5.97, indicating relatively high mean scores. The sample of participants obtained the highest score on 'significant others' ($M = 5.97$; $SD = 1.50$) sub-scale and the lowest mean score on 'friends' ($M = 5.57$; $SD = 1.33$). The SDs ranged from 1.33 to 1.50.

The skewness values for the MSPSS ranged between -1.13 and -1.89, thereby falling outside the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Howell, 2008). Similarly, the kurtosis values for the ranged between 1.30 and 3.03, thereby falling outside the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Levin & Fox, 2011).

6.2.2.7 Means and standard deviations: Career satisfaction scale (CSS)

The CSS scale can ranges from one to five. Table 6.17 shows the descriptive information for the CSS scale. The descriptive data included the minimum score, maximum score, mean, SD, skewness and kurtosis

Table 6.17

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
CSS	1.00	5.00	3.76	.98	-.91	.39

Note: N = 606

Table 6.17 shows that the CSS mean score value was 3.76, indicating a relatively high mean score. The SD score was .98.

The skewness value for the CSS was -.91, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Howell, 2008). Similarly, the kurtosis value was .39, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Levin & Fox, 2011).

In summary, the following core conclusions were drawn:

Figure 6.1 below shows the dominant profile scores. In terms of psychological strengths, 'self-efficacy' was somewhat highest, indicating that participants had relatively strong beliefs in their ability to engage in specific tasks and they also had insight into their career development. This is followed by the ability to 'manage own emotions' and 'career confidence' to pursue career goals and reach career goals and aspirations. Participants had somewhat low 'perceptions of emotions' and career satisfaction.

The strongest career preoccupations that drive career development needs (career establishment preoccupations) were somewhat high, indicating concerns with careers and feeling a sense of insecurity and lack of upskilling opportunities on the job. This can be expected considering that the dominant age group of the participants (between age 25 and 45 years) are preoccupied with concerns for security and career advancement. In terms of social strengths, perceived organisational support was somewhat lower than social support aspects.

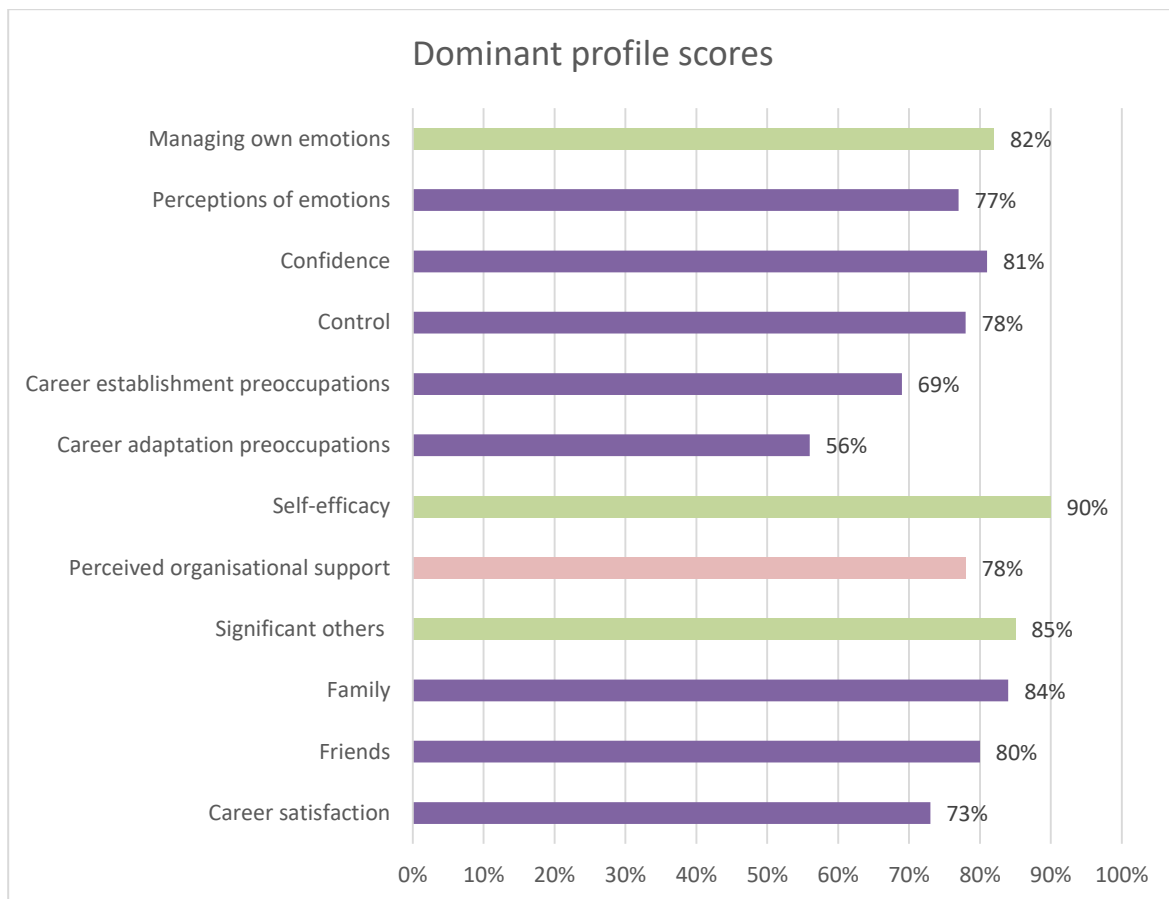


Figure 6.1 Dominant profile scores

6.3 CORRELATIONAL STATISTICS

Correlational statistics was used to investigate the magnitude and direction of the association between the research variables and to determine whether the results provided adequate evidence in support of the following research hypothesis:

H1: There are statistically significant interrelationships between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context.

6.3.1 Correlations between the biographical and construct variables

As shown in section 6.2.2, since the majority of scale values were not skew, that is, fell within the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for their coefficients (Howell, 2008), the relationship between the biographical and construct variables were computed by means of the

Spearman correlation coefficient to determine the magnitude and direction of the relationship between each of the variables of each instrument.

Table 6.18 reflects correlations between the biographical variables and the independent and dependent variables

Table 6.18

Spearman Bi-variate Correlations Between the Biographical and Construct Variables.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Age	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 Race	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3 Marital status	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4 Number of children	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 Job level	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 Monthly income	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7 Education level	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8 AES overall scale (IV)	-.00	-.08	.04	.08*	.02	-.04	-.06
9 Perception of emotions	.00	.08	.04	.05	.06	.02	.03
10 Managing own emotions	.04	-.13**	-.01	.09*	.00	-.07	-.10*
11 Managing others emotions	.00	-.13**	.05	.11**	-.00	-.07	-.09*
12 Utilisation of emotions	-.11*	-.12**	.02	.02	-.03	-.03	-.03
13 CAAS overall scale(IV)	-.00	-.12**	-.02	.03	.04	-.02	-.06
14 Concern	-.11*	-.19***	-.03	.06	-.04	-.07	-.05
15 Control	.08*	-.06	-.02	.01	.11**	.04	-.05
16 Curiosity	-.02	-.14**	-.02	.00	.01	-.05	-.08*
17 Confidence	.03	-.02	.01	.04	.08	-.01	-.03
18 PCPS overall scale (IV)	-.32***	-.33***	-.19***	-.08	-.29***	-.20***	-.19***
19 Psychosocial career establishment preoccupations	-.35***	-.36***	-.21***	-.10*	-.30***	-.24***	-.21***
20 Psychosocial career adaptation preoccupations	-.27***	-.22***	-.19***	-.11**	-.26***	-.16***	-.13**
21 Psychosocial work/life adjustment preoccupations	-.15**	-.17***	-.01	.06	-.16***	-.06	-.08*
22 Overall NGSE scale (IV)	.05	-.04	.06	.04	.10*	.04	-.06
23 Overall SPOS scale (IV)	.20***	.14**	.14**	.13**	.33***	.17***	.16***
24 Overall MSPSS scale (IV)	-.09*	.09*	.16**	-.01	-.00	.00	.04
25 Family	-.08	.02	.08	-.02	-.04	-.05	-.02
26 Friends	-.04	.14**	.10*	-.02	.03	.07	.06
27 Significant others	-.19***	.05	.16**	-.06	-.05	-.06	.02
28 Overall career satisfaction scale (DV)	.25***	.19***	.19***	.16**	.36***	.28***	.16**

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$ Significant statistical correlations are shown in boldface.

6.3.1.1 Age and AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS scales

As shown in Table 6.18, a number of significant negative and positive bi-variate relationships were observed between the biographical variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level), and the AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS scales.

A significant negative bi-variate relationship was observed between age and the AES subscale variable, utilisation of emotions ($r = -.11$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$). No correlations were observed between age and the overall AES scale, perception of emotions, managing own emotions and managing others emotions variables.

Significant positive and negative bi-variate relationships were observed between age and the CAAS subscale variables (concern and control) ranging between $r = .08$ and $r = -.11$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect). No correlations were observed between age and the overall CAAS scale, curiosity and confidence subscales.

Significant negative bi-variate relationships were observed between age and the overall PCPS scale, psychosocial career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations subscales ranging between $r = -.15$ and $r = -.35$ ($p \leq .01$; small to medium practical effect).

No correlation could be found between age and the overall NGSE scale.

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between age and the overall SPOS scale ($r = .20$; small practical effect; $p \leq .001$).

Significant negative bi-variate relationships were observed between age and the overall MSPSS scale and the 'significant others' subscale ranging between $r = -.09$ and $r = -.19$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect). No correlations were observed between age and the MSPSS variables, family and friends.

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between age and the overall CSS scale ($r = .25$; small practical effect; $p \leq .001$).

6.3.1.2 Race and AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS

As shown in Table 6.18, significant negative bi-variate relationships were observed between race and the AES subscales (managing own emotions, managing others emotions and utilisation of emotions) ranging between $r = -.12$ and $r = -.13$ ($p \leq .01$; small practical effect). No correlations were observed between race and the overall AES scale and the perception of emotions subscale.

Significant negative bi-variate relationships were observed between race and the overall CAAS and subscales (concern and curiosity) ranging between $r = -.12$ and $r = -.19$ ($p \leq .01$; small practical effect). No correlations were observed between race and the CAAS subscales (control and confidence).

Significant negative bi-variate relationships were observed between race and the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations) ranging between $r = -.17$ and $r = -.36$ ($p \leq .001$; small to medium practical effect).

No correlation could be found between race and the overall NGSE scale.

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between race and the overall SPOS scale ($r = .14$; small practical effect; $p \leq .01$).

Significant positive bi-variate relationships were observed between race and the overall MSPSS scale and 'friends' subscale ranging between $r = .09$ and $r = .14$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect). No correlations could be found between race and the MSPSS subscales (family and significant others).

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between race and the overall CSS scale ($r = .19$; small practical effect; $p \leq .001$).

6.3.1.3 Age and AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS scales

As shown in Table 6.18, no correlation could be found between marital status and the overall AES scale and subscales

No correlation could be found between marital status and the overall CAAS scale and subscales.

Significant negative bi-variate relationships were observed between marital status and the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment and adaptation preoccupations) ranging between $r = -.22$ and $r = -.36$ ($p \leq .001$; small to medium practical effect). No correlation could be found between marital status and the PCPS subscale 'career work/life adjustment preoccupations'.

No correlation could be found between marital status and the overall NGSE scale.

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between marital status and the overall SPOS scale ($r = .14$; small practical effect; $p \leq .01$).

Significant positive bi-variate relationships were observed between marital status and the overall MSPSS scale and subscales (friends and significant others) ranging between $r = .10$ and $r = .16$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect). No correlation could be found between marital status and the MSPSS subscale 'family'.

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between marital status and the overall CSS scale ($r = .19$; small practical effect; $p \leq .001$).

6.3.1.4 Number of children and AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS scales

As shown in Table 6.18, significant positive bi-variate relationship were observed between the number of children and the overall AES scale and subscales (managing own emotions and managing others emotions) ranging between $r = .08$ and $r = .11$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect). No correlation could be found between number of children and the AES subscales (perception of emotions and utilisation of emotions).

No correlation could be found between number of children and the overall CAAS scale and subscales.

Significant negative bi-variate relationships were observed between number of children and the PCPS subscales (psychosocial career establishment and adaptation preoccupations) ranging between $r = -.10$ and $r = -.11$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect). No correlation could be

found between the number of children and the overall PCPS scale and subscale 'career work/life adjustment preoccupations'.

No correlation could be found between number of children and the overall NGSE scale.

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between number of children and the overall SPOS scale ($r = .13$; small practical effect; $p \leq .01$)

No correlation could be found between number of children and the overall MSPSS scale and subscales.

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between the number of children and the overall CSS scale ($r = .16$; small practical effect; $p \leq .01$).

6.3.1.5 *Job level and AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS scales*

As shown in Table 6.18, no correlation could be found between job level and the overall AES scale and subscales.

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between job level and the CAAS subscale 'control' ($r = .11$; small practical effect; $p \leq .01$). No correlation could be found between job level and the overall CAAS scale and subscales (concern, curiosity and confidence).

Significant negative bi-variate relationships were observed between job level and the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations) ranging between $r = -.16$ and $r = -.30$ ($p \leq .001$; small to medium practical effect).

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between job level and the overall NGSE scale ($r = .10$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between job level and the overall SPOS scale ($r = .33$; medium practical effect; $p \leq .01$).

No correlation could be found between job level and the overall MSPSS scale and subscales. A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between job level and the overall CSS scale ($r = .36$; medium practical effect; $p \leq .001$).

6.3.1.6 *Total monthly income and AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS scales*

As shown in Table 6.18, no correlation could be found between total monthly income and the overall AES scale and subscales.

No correlation could be found between total monthly income and the overall CAAS scale and subscales.

Significant negative bi-variate relationships were observed between total monthly income and the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment and adaptation preoccupations) ranging between $r = -.16$ and $r = -.24$ ($p \leq .001$; small practical effect). No correlation could be found between total monthly income and the PCPS subscale 'career work/life adjustment preoccupations'.

No correlation could be found between total monthly income and the overall NGSE scale.

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between total monthly income and the overall SPOS scale ($r = .17$; small practical effect; $p \leq .01$).

No correlation could be found between total monthly income and the overall MSPSS scale and subscales.

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between total monthly income and the overall CSS scale ($r = .28$; small practical effect; $p \leq .001$).

6.3.1.7 *Education level and AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS scales*

As shown in Table 6.18, significant negative bi-variate relationships were observed between education level and the AES subscales (managing own emotions and managing others emotions) ranging between $r = -.09$ and $r = -.10$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect). No correlation could be found between education level and the overall AES subscales (perception of emotions and utilisation of emotions).

A significant negative bi-variate relationship was observed between education level and the CAAS subscale 'curiosity' ($r = -.08$; small practical effect; $p \leq .01$). No correlation could be

found between education level and the overall CAAS scale and subscales (concern, control and confidence).

Significant negative bi-variate relationships were observed between education level and the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations) ranging between $r = -.08$ and $r = -.21$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect).

No correlation could be found between education level and the overall NGSE scale.

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between education level and the overall SPOS scale ($r = .16$; small practical effect; $p \leq .01$).

No correlation could be found between education level and the overall MSPSS scale and subscales.

A significant positive bi-variate relationship was observed between the education level and the overall CSS scale ($r = .16$; small practical effect; $p \leq .01$).

Overall, the results showed significant positive and negative correlations between the biographical variables (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level), independent variables (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy and perceived organisational and social support) and dependent variable (career satisfaction), which were small to medium in practical effect size ($p \leq .05$), with the exception of the AES subscale 'perceptions of emotions', the CAAS subscale 'confidence' and the MSPSS subscale 'family' where no significant correlations could be found.

6.3.2 Correlations between the scales construct variables and career satisfaction.

The Pearson correlation coefficient was computed in order to determine the magnitude and direction of the relationship between the construct variables (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy and perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction.

First, Table 6.19 shows the bi-variate correlations among the scale variables (AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS).

Table 6.19

Pearson Bi-variate Correlations Between the Scale Construct Variables and Career Satisfaction

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1 AES overall scale (IV)	–																				
2 Perception of emotions	.79***	–																			
3 Managing own emotions	.83***	.50***	–																		
4 Managing others' emotions	.81***	.49***	.61***	–																	
5 Utilisation of emotions	.63***	.28***	.43***	.45***	–																
6 CAAS overall scale(IV)	.55***	.37***	.60***	.40***	.29***	–															
7 Concern	.47***	.30***	.53***	.35***	.26***	.83***	–														
8 Control	.48***	.34***	.55***	.32***	.22***	.87***	.65***	–													
9 Curiosity	.51***	.34***	.51***	.40***	.32***	.86***	.61***	.64***	–												
10 Confidence	.40***	.28***	.45***	.29***	.18***	.85***	.55***	.70***	.67***	–											
11 PCPS overall scale (IV)	.13**	.06	.05	.14**	.20***	.17***	.20***	.05	.23***	.09*	–										
12 Psychosocial career establishment preoccupations	.13**	.08	.07	.13**	.16***	.20***	.23***	.09*	.23***	.12**	.94***	–									
13 Psychosocial career adaptation preoccupations	.08*	.03	-.02	.11**	.21***	.05	.05	-.05	.16***	-.02	.78***	.57***	–								
14 Psychosocial work/life adjustment preoccupations	.08*	.01	.03	.10*	.16**	.13**	.16**	.03	.16**	.07	.81***	.64***	.58***	–							
15 Overall NGSE scale (IV)	.44***	.28***	.53***	.30***	.21***	.48***	.41***	.48***	.33***	.44***	.00	.05	-.09*	-.01	–						
16 Overall SPOS scale (IV)	.18***	.13**	.22***	.13**	.05	.14**	.14**	.15**	.05	.14**	-.33***	-.28***	-.33***	-.25***	.16***	–					
17 Overall MSPSS scale (IV)	.25***	.16***	.24***	.25***	.12**	.19***	.22***	.15**	.15**	.14**	-.02	-.01	-.04	.00	.20***	.22***	–				
18 Family	.23***	.11**	.23***	.22***	.15**	.18***	.22***	.13**	.13**	.10*	-.00	-.00	-.02	.02	.19***	.21***	.84***	–			
19 Friends	.24***	.18***	.21***	.24***	.09*	.16**	.14**	.14**	.12**	.12**	-.04	-.04	-.04	-.02	.15**	.25***	.77***	.49***	–		
20 Significant others	.15**	.10*	.15**	.15**	.07	.14**	.17***	.09*	.11**	.12**	-.00	.02	-.04	.00	.15**	.09*	.84***	.60***	.43***	–	
21 Overall career satisfaction scale (DV)	.22***	.13**	.29***	.17***	.05	.26***	.23***	.27***	.14**	.25***	-.33***	-.28***	-.35***	.22***	.31***	.51***	.30***	.31***	.23***	.22***	–

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$. Significant statistical correlations are shown in boldface

6.3.2.1 *Correlations among each scale (AES, CAAS, PCPS and MSPSS)*

In terms of the bi-variate correlations, Table 6.19 shows that the correlations among the four AES subscales (perception of emotions, managing own emotions, managing others emotions and utilisation of emotions) have ranged between $r = .28$ and $r = .61$ ($p \leq .001$; small to large practical effect size). All the subscales correlated significantly and positively ($r \geq .63 \leq .83$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .001$) with the overall AES scale. The results suggest convergent validity of the scale.

As shown in Table 6.19, the bi-variate correlations among the four CAAS subscales (concern, control, curiosity and confidence) have ranged between $r = .55$ and $r = .70$ ($p \leq .001$; large practical effect size). All the subscales correlated significantly and positively ($r \geq .83 \leq .87$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .001$) with the overall CAAS scale. The results suggest convergent validity of the scale.

In terms of the bi-variate correlations, Table 6.19 shows that the correlations among the three PCPS subscales (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations) have ranged between $r = .57$ and $r = .64$ ($p \leq .001$; large practical effect size). All the subscales correlated significantly and positively ($r \geq .78 \leq .94$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .001$) with the overall PCPS scale. The results suggest convergent validity of the scale.

As shown in Table 6.19, the bi-variate correlations among the three MSPSS subscales (family, friends and significant others) have ranged between $r = .43$ and $r = .60$ ($p \leq .001$; medium to large practical effect size). All the subscales correlated significantly and positively ($r \geq .77 \leq .84$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .001$) with the overall MSPSS scale. The results suggest convergent validity of the scale.

Overall, the results showed significant positive correlations for all the overall scales (AES, CAAS, PCPS and MSPSS) ranging between medium to large practical effect size ($p \leq .001$).

6.3.2.2 *Correlations between the scale construct variables and career satisfaction*

Secondly, Table 6.19 summarises the bi-variate correlations between the independent variables (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy and perceived organisational and social support) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

Table 6.19 shows significant positive bi-variate correlations between the overall CSS scale and the overall AES scale and subscales (perceptions of emotions, managing own emotions and managing others' emotions) ranging between $r = .13$ and $r = .29$ ($p \leq .01$; small practical effect size). However, no correlation was observed between the subscale 'utilisation of emotions' and the overall CSS scale. The range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 6.19 shows significant positive bi-variate correlations between the overall CSS scale and the overall CAAS scale and subscales (concern, control, curiosity and confidence) ranging between $r = .14$ and $r = .27$ ($p \leq .01$; small practical effect size). The range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 6.19 shows significant negative bi-variate correlations between the overall CSS scale and the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations) ranging between $r = -.22$ and $r = -.35$ ($p \leq .001$; small to medium practical effect size). The range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

As shown in Table 6.19, the overall CSS scale correlates significantly and positively with the overall NGSE scale ($r = .31$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .001$). The r value suggests no multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 6.19 shows that the overall CSS scale correlated significantly and positively with the overall SPOS scale ($r = .51$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .001$). The r value suggests no multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 6.19 shows significant positive bi-variate correlations between overall CSS scale and the overall MSPSS scale and subscales (family, friends and significant others) ranging between $r = .22$ and $r = .31$ ($p \leq .001$; small to medium practical effect size). The range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

The results showed significant positive and negative correlations between the independent and dependent variables ranging from small to large in practical effect size. However, no correlation could be found between the AES subscale 'utilisation of emotions' and the overall CSS scale.

6.3.2.3 *Correlations between the independent and mediating scale construct variables*

Lastly, Table 6.19 summarises the bi-variate correlations between the psychological variables (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and mediating social variables (perceived organisational and social support)

(a) *Correlations between SPOS and AES*

Table 6.19 shows a significant positive bi-variate correlation were between the overall SPOS scale with the overall AES scale and subscales (perception of emotions, managing own emotions and managing others' emotions) ranging between $r = .13$ and $r = .22$ ($p \leq .01$; small practical effect size). No significant correlation was observed between the overall SPOS and the AES subscale 'utilisation of emotions'. The range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

(b) *Correlations between SPOS and CAAS*

As shown in Table 6.19, significant positive bi-variate correlations were observed between the overall SPOS scale with the overall CAAS scale and subscales (concern, control and confidence) ranging between $r = .14$ and $r = .15$ ($p \leq .01$; small practical effect size). No significant correlation was observed between the overall SPOS scale and the CAAS subscale 'curiosity'. The range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

(c) *Correlations between SPOS and PCPS*

Table 6.19 shows a significant negative bi-variate correlation between the overall SPOS scale with the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations) ranging between $r = -.25$ and $r = -.33$ ($p \leq .001$; small to medium practical effect size). The range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

(d) *Correlations between SPOS and NGSE*

As shown in Table 6.19, the overall SPOS scale correlated significantly and positively with the overall NGSE scale ($r = .16$; $p \leq .001$; small practical effect size). The r value suggests no multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

(e) *Correlations between MSPSS and AES*

Results in Table 6.19 show significant positive bi-variate correlations between the overall MSPSS scale and subscales (family, friends and significant others) with the overall AES scale and subscales (perception of emotions, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions) ranging between $r = .11$ and $r = .25$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect size). No significant correlation was observed between the MSPSS subscale 'significant others' and the AES subscale 'utilisation of emotions'. The range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

(f) *Correlations between MSPSS and CAAS*

Table 6.19 shows significant positive bi-variate correlations between the overall MSPSS scale and subscales (family, friends and significant others) with the overall CAAS scale and subscales (concern, control, curiosity and confidence) ranging between $r = .11$ and $r = .22$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect size). The range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

(g) *Correlations between MSPSS and PCPS*

No significant bi-variate correlations were observed between the overall MSPSS scale and subscales with the overall PCPS scale and subscales.

(h) *Correlations between MSPSS and NGSE*

Table 6.19 shows significant positive bi-variate correlations between the overall MSPSS scale and subscales (family, friends and significant others) with the NGSE scale ranging between $r = .15$ and $r = .20$ ($p \leq .01$; small practical effect size). The r value suggests no multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

6.3.2.4 *Correlations between the psychological variables (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy)*

Table 6.20 below shows the bi-variate correlations between the psychological variables (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy).

Table 6.20

Pearson Bi-variate Correlations Between the Psychological Variables (Emotional Intelligence, Career Adaptability, Psychosocial Career Preoccupations and Self-efficacy)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 AES overall scale (IV)	-														
2 Perception of emotions	.79***	-													
3 Managing own emotions	.83***	.50***	-												
4 Managing others' emotions	.81***	.49***	.61***	-											
5 Utilisation of emotions	.63***	.28***	.43***	.45***	-										
6 CAAS overall scale(IV)	.55***	.37***	.60***	.40***	.29***	-									
7 Concern	.47***	.30***	.53***	.35***	.26***	.83***	-								
8 Control	.48***	.34***	.55***	.32***	.22***	.87***	.65***	-							
9 Curiosity	.51***	.34***	.51***	.40***	.32***	.86***	.61***	.64***	-						
10 Confidence	.40***	.28***	.45***	.29***	.18***	.85***	.55***	.70***	.67***	-					
11 PCPS overall scale (IV)	.13**	.06	.05	.14**	.20***	.17***	.20***	.05	.23***	.09*	-				
12 Psychosocial career establishment preoccupations	.13**	.08	.07	.13**	.16***	.20***	.23***	.09*	.23***	.12**	.94***	-			
13 Psychosocial career adaptation preoccupations	.08*	.03	-.02	.11**	.21***	.05	.05	-.05	.16***	-.02	.78***	.57***	-		
14 Psychosocial work/life adjustment preoccupations	.08*	.01	.03	.10*	.16**	.13**	.16**	.03	.16**	.07	.81***	.64***	.58***	-	
15 Overall NGSE scale (IV)	.44***	.28***	.53***	.30***	.21***	.48***	.41***	.48***	.33***	.44***	.00	.05	-.09*	-.01	-

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$ Significant statistical correlations are shown in boldface

(a) *Correlations between AES and CAAS*

As shown in Table 6.20, significant positive correlations were observed between the overall AES scale and subscales (perception of emotions, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions and utilisation of emotions) with the overall CAAS scale and subscales (concern, control, curiosity and confidence) which ranged between $r = .18$ and $r = .55$ ($p \leq .001$; small to large practical effect size). The range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

(b) *Correlations between AES and PCPS*

The results in Table 6.20 showed that significant positive correlations were observed between the overall AES scale with the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation, work/life adjustment preoccupations) ranging between $r = .08$ and $r = .13$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect size).

No significant correlations were observed between the AES subscales (perception of emotions and managing own emotions) with the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations variables).

As shown in Table 6.20, significant positive correlations were observed between the AES subscale 'managing others' emotions' with the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation, work/life adjustment preoccupations) ranging between $r = .10$ and $r = .14$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect size).

The results in Table 6.20 showed significant positive correlations between the AES subscale 'utilisation of emotions' with the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation, work/life adjustment preoccupations) ranging between $r = .16$ and $r = .21$ ($p \leq .01$; small practical effect size).

Overall, the range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

(c) *Correlations between AES and NGSE*

Table 6.20 showed significant positive correlations between the overall AES scale and subscales (perception of emotions, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions and

utilisation of emotions) with the overall NGSE scale ranging between $r = .21$ and $r = .53$ ($p \leq .001$; small to large practical effect size). The range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

(d) *Correlations between CAAS and PCPS*

The results in Table 6.20 showed significant positive correlations between the overall CAAS scale with the overall PCPS scale (psychosocial career establishment and work/life adjustment preoccupations) ranging between $r = .13$ and $r = .20$ ($p \leq .01$; small practical effect size). No significant correlations were observed between the overall CAAS scale with the PCPS subscale 'psychosocial career adaptation preoccupations'.

As shown in Table 6.20, significant positive correlations were observed between the CAAS subscale 'concern' with the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment and work/life adjustment preoccupations) which ranged between $r = .16$ and $r = .23$ ($p \leq .01$; small practical effect size). No significant correlations were observed between CAAS subscale 'concern' with the PCPS subscale 'psychosocial career adaptation preoccupations'.

The results in Table 6.20 showed significant positive correlations between the CAAS subscale 'control' with the PCPS subscale 'psychosocial career establishment preoccupations' ($r = .09$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$). No significant correlations were observed between the CAAS subscale 'control' with the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations).

As shown in Table 6.20, significant positive correlations were observed between the CAAS subscale 'curiosity' with the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations) ranging between $r = .16$ and $r = .23$ ($p \leq .01$; small practical effect size).

The results in Table 6.20 showed that significant positive correlations were observed between the CAAS subscale 'confidence' with the overall PCPS scale and subscale 'psychosocial career establishment preoccupations' ranging between $r = .09$ and $r = .12$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect size). No significant correlations were observed between the CAAS subscale 'confidence' with the PCPS subscales (psychosocial career adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations).

Overall, the range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

(e) *Correlations between CAAS and NGSE*

As shown in Table 6.20, significant positive correlations were observed between the overall CAAS scale and subscales (concern, control, curiosity and confidence) with the overall NGSE scale ranging between $r = .33$ and $r = .48$ ($p \leq .001$; medium practical effect size). The range of the r values suggests that the values are below the threshold value for multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

(f) *Correlations between PCPS and NGSE*

Table 6.20 showed that the PCPS subscale 'psychosocial career adaptation preoccupations' correlated significantly and negatively with the overall NGSE scale $r = -.09$ ($p \leq .05$; small practical effect size). The r value suggests no multicollinearity concerns ($r \geq .80$) (Hair et al., 2010).

No significant correlations were observed between the overall PCPS scale and subscales (psychosocial career establishment and work/life adjustment preoccupations) with the overall NGSE scale.

Core conclusions

Biographical variables

As illustrated in Table 6.21, the results showed significant positive and negative correlations between the biographical variables (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education), independent variables (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy and perceived organisational and social support) and dependent variable (career satisfaction), which were small to medium in practical effect size ($p \leq .05$), with the exception of the AES subscale 'perceptions of emotions', the CAAS subscale 'confidence' and the MSPSS subscale 'family' where no significant correlations could be found.

Table 6.21

Summary Overview of Significant Correlations Between the Biographical, Independent Variables (AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS) and Dependent Variable (CSS)

Variables	Biographical variables
<i>Overall AES - Independent variable</i>	Number of children
Utilisation of emotions	Age
Managing own emotions	Race, number of children and education level
Managing others' emotions	
<i>Overall CAAS – Independent variable</i>	Race
Concern	Age and race
Control	Age and job level
Curiosity	Race and education level
<i>Overall PCPS – Independent variable</i>	Age, race, marital status, job level and total monthly income
Establishment preoccupations	Age, race, marital status, number of children, job level and total monthly income
Adaptation preoccupations	Age, race and job level
Work/life adjustment preoccupations	Age, race and job level
<i>NGSE – Independent variable</i>	Number of children and job level
<i>SPOS – Independent variable</i>	Age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level
<i>MSPSS – Independent variable</i>	
Friends	Race and marital status
Significant others	Age and marital status
<i>CSS – Dependent variable</i>	Age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level

Overall, significant positive and negative correlations were observed between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction, ranging between small and large practical effect size ($p \leq .05$), with the exception of the AES subscale 'utilisation of emotions' where no significant correlations could be found. No significant correlation could be found between the AES subscale 'utilisation of emotions' with career satisfaction. In addition, social support did not mediate the relationship between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. No significant correlation could be found between the overall PCPS scale and the overall NGSE scale.

The results provided supportive evidence for the research hypothesis **H1**: There are statistically significant interrelationships between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context.

6.4 INFERENTIAL (MULTIVARIATE) STATISTICS

Inferential and multivariate statistics entail the use of sample data to infer or draw conclusions about populations (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). This section consists of six steps, namely:

- Stage 1 standard multiple linear regression analysis
- Stage 2 canonical correlations analysis
- Stage 3 mediation modelling analysis
- Stage 4 structural equation modelling analysis
- Stage 5 hierarchical moderated regression analysis
- Stage 6 tests for significant mean differences

6.4.1 Standard multiple linear regression analysis

A standard multiple linear regression analysis was performed with the IBM SPSS Statistics version 23 (2015) regression procedure to assess which of the biographical variables (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predicted emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction.

This stage of the inferential statistical analysis tested research hypothesis H2:

H2: Individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predict their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction.

The biographical variables were coded as follows:

(a) Age

- ≥ 45 years = 1
- ≤ 44 = 0

(b) Race

- White = 1
- Black (African, Coloured, Indian, other) = 0

(c) Marital status

- Married = 1
- Single/divorced or separated/widowed = 0

(d) Number of children

- $1+ = 1$
- $0 = 0$

(e) Job level

- Manager/senior manager/deputy director/director/CEO = 1
- Employee = 0

(f) Total monthly income

- $\geq 30\,000+ = 1$
- $\leq 29\,999 = 0$

(g) Education level

- Honors/master's/PhD = 1
- Certificate/diploma/degree = 0

The results of the multiple regression analysis are reported in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22

Multiple Regression of Biographical Variables (Age, Race, Marital Status, Number of Children, Job Level, Total Monthly Income and Education Level)

Biographical variables	Emotional intelligence		Career adaptability		Psychosocial career preoccupations		Self-efficacy		Perceived organisational support		Social support		Career satisfaction	
	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t
Age	.02	.44	.03	.36	-.49	-4.65***	.05	.62	.31	2.08*	-.46	-3.17**	.21	1.77
Race	-.08	-2.16*	-.14	-2.41*	-.43	-5.69***	-.07	-1.29	.23	2.18*	.19	1.78	.21	2.49*
Marital status	-.05	-1.10	-.06	-.87	.09	1.03	-.05	-.88	.04	.35	-.68	-5.92***	-.10	-1.03
Number of children	.05	1.19	-.00	-.03	.06	.84	.00	.03	.15	1.36	-.15	-1.41	.07	.76
Job level	-.02	-.47	.08	1.24	-.25	-2.99**	.05	.79	.42	3.58**	-.10	-.88	.39	4.08***
Total monthly income	-.02	-.52	.03	.45	-.06	-.62	.08	1.21	.03	.25	-.02	-.15	.32	3.05**
Education	-.02	-.46	-.16	-2.28*	-.12	-1.27	-.08	-1.25	.14	1.12	.04	.30	.03	.25
Model info														
F_p	1.55		1.82		17.24***		.83		7.35***		8.06***		12.57***	
Adjusted R^2	.01		.01		.17++		-.00		.08+		.08+		.13++	

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$

Table 6.22 showed that the regression models for PCPS, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS scales were significant ($Fp \leq .05$). The regression models for AES, CAAS and NGSE scales were not significant ($Fp \geq .05$) and were therefore not considered in the interpretation of the findings. Table 6.22 indicates that the significant regression models explained a small to medium ($R^2 \leq .13 \geq .17$) practical percentage of variance in the dependent variables.

6.4.1.1 *Biographical variables as predictors of psychosocial career preoccupations*

The regression of the biographical variables (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) on the psychosocial career preoccupations variable generated a statistically significant model ($F = 17.24$; $p \leq .001$), accounting for $R^2 = .17$; 17% (medium practical effect size) of the variance. The biographical variables age ($\beta = -.49$; $t = -4.65$; $p \leq .001$), race ($\beta = -.43$; $t = -5.69$; $p \leq .001$), and job level ($\beta = -.25$; $t = -2.99$; $p \leq .01$) statistically significantly predicted the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations, with age accounting for most of the variance in psychosocial career preoccupations. The negative values suggest differences between the age, race and job level groups.

6.4.1.2 *Biographical variables as predictors of perceived organisational support*

The regression of the biographical variables (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) on the perceived organisational support variable generated a statistically significant model ($F = 7.35$; $p \leq .001$), accounting for $R^2 = .08$; 8% (small practical effect size) of the variance. The biographical variables age ($\beta = .31$; $t = 2.08$; $p \leq .05$), race ($\beta = .23$; $t = 2.18$; $p \leq .05$) and job level ($\beta = .42$; $t = 3.58$; $p \leq .01$) statistically significantly predicted the construct of perceived organisational support, with job level accounting for most of the variance in perceived organisational support.

6.4.1.3 *Biographical variables as predictors of social support*

The regression of the biographical variables (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) on the social support variable generated a statistically significant model ($F = 8.06$; $p \leq .001$), accounting for $R^2 = .08$; 8% (medium practical effect size) of the variance. The biographical variables age ($\beta = -.46$; $t = -3.17$; $p \leq .01$) and marital status ($\beta = -.68$; $t = -5.92$; $p \leq .001$) statistically significantly predicted the construct of social support, with marital status accounting for most of the variance in social support. The negative values suggest differences between the age and marital status groups.

6.4.1.4 Biographical variables as predictors of career satisfaction

The regression of the biographical variables (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) on the career satisfaction variable generated a statistically significant model ($F = 12.57$; $p \leq .001$), accounting for $R^2 = .13$; 13% (medium practical effect size) of the variance. The biographical variables race ($\beta = .21$; $t = 2.49$; $p \leq .05$), job level ($\beta = .39$; $t = 4.08$; $p \leq .001$), and monthly income ($\beta = .32$; $t = 3.05$; $p \leq .01$) statistically significantly positively predicted the construct of career satisfaction, with job level accounting for most of the variance in career satisfaction.

Overall, number of children and education level showed no significant regression on any of the psychosocial variables and career satisfaction.

Table 6.23

Summary of the Influence of Biographical Variables on the Research Constructs

Biographical variable	Predicted research variable	Practical effect significance
Age	Psychosocial career preoccupations	Medium
	Perceived organisational support	Small
	Social support	Medium
Race	Psychosocial career preoccupations	Medium
	Perceived organisational support	Small
	Career satisfaction	Medium
Marital status	Social support	Medium
Job level	Psychosocial career preoccupations	Medium
	Perceived organisational support	Small
	Career satisfaction	Medium
Total monthly income	Career satisfaction	Medium

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Core synopsis as indicated in Table 6.23:

- Age predicted the constructs of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support, which were small to medium in practical effect size.
- Race predicted psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational support and career satisfaction, which were small to medium in practical effect size.
- Marital status only predicted social support, which was medium in practical effect size.
- Likewise, job level predicted the constructs of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational support and career satisfaction, which were small to medium in practical effect size.
- Total monthly income only predicted career satisfaction, which was medium in practical effect size.

The biographical variables number of children and education did not predict any of the research variables. In addition, biographical variables (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) did not predict the emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy constructs.

The results above provide partial supportive evidence for research hypothesis H2:

The results obtained for the multiple regression analysis yielded only partial support for hypothesis H2: Individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, job level and total monthly income) significantly predict their psychosocial attributes (psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction.

6.4.2 Canonical correlations

A canonical correlational analysis was performed with the CANCELL, SAS/STAT, version 9.4 (2013) procedure to assess the overall relationships between the psychological attributes as a composite set of independent latent variables (conceptualised as emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction as a composite set of dependent latent variables.

During this stage of the inferential statistical analysis, the following research hypothesis was tested:

H3: Psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) as a composite set of latent independent variables are significantly related to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

Canonical correlation analysis was considered relevant and important because canonical analysis limits the chances of committing type I errors, and explores relationships between two composite sets of multiple variables to produce the highest predictive values for both sets (Blumentritt, 2010). According to Hair et al. (2010), canonical correlations or loadings assess the magnitude of the canonical relationship that may exist between the linear composites (canonical variates) for the independent and dependent variables (i.e., it represents the bi-variate correlation between the two canonical variates). To interpret the canonical correlations, a rigorous cut-off criterion was set at $R_c \geq .25$ due to the large number of variables.

The analysis of the canonical loadings assisted in establishing the core psychological attributes that contributed the most in explaining the variance in the overall psychological canonical construct variates (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), as well as the psychological variables that contributed most in explaining the variance in the perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction variables.

Table 6.24 reports the overall model fit statistics relating to the psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction.

Table 6.24

Canonical Correlation Analysis: Overall Model Fit Statistics Relating to the Psychological Attributes (Emotional Intelligence, Career Adaptability, Psychosocial Career Preoccupations and Self-efficacy), Social Attributes (Perceived Organisational and Social Support) and Career Satisfaction

Measures of overall model fit for canonical correlation analysis					
Canonical function	Overall canonical correlation (Rc)	Overall squared canonical correlation (Rc ²)	Eigenvalue	F statistics	Probability (p)
1	.55	.30	.4280	4.21	<.0001***
2	.27	.07	.0757	1.60	.0034**
3	.16	.03	.0272	1.14	.2486
4	.15	.02	.0241	1.12	.3035
5	.14	.02	.0201	1.04	.4157
6	.09	.01	.0090	.73	.6443
Multivariate tests of significance					
Statistics	Value		Approximate F statistics	Probability(p)	
Wilks' lambda	.601		4.21	<.0001***	
Pillai's trace	.449		3.85	<.0001***	
Hotelling-Lawley trace	.584		4.59	<.0001***	
Roy's greatest root	.428		20.40	<.0001***	

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$

Rc² $\leq .12$ (small practical effect size); Rc² $\geq .13 \leq .25$ (medium practical effect size); Rc² $\geq .26$ (large practical effect size)

The canonical function explains the relationship between two linear composites or canonical variates (i.e., one for the set of dependent variables and one for the set of independent variables). The strength of the relationship is given by the canonical correlation (Hair et al., 2010). Wilks' lambda test (Cohen, 1992) was used to assess for the significance of the overall canonical correlation between the composite set of dependent latent variables (perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction) and the composite set of independent latent variables (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) of the canonical function. In addition, the level of significance to interpret the canonical correlation was set at the acceptable level $p \leq .05$, which is generally considered the accepted level for considering a correlation coefficient to be statistically significant (Hair et al., 2010). Wilks' multivariate criterion lambda (λ) was used because it allows

researchers to assess the practical significance ($1 - 0\lambda = r^2$ - type metric of effect size) of the full canonical model (Cohen, 1992).

The redundancy index, which provides a much more realistic measure and is useful for determining the practical significance of the predictive ability of canonical relationships, was also considered to determine the magnitude of the overall correlations between the two variates of the canonical function (Hair et al., 2010). In line with the guidelines set by Cohen (1992), interpretation of the squared canonical correlation (Rc^2) values was based on the following effect sizes: small practical effect size: $Rc^2 \leq .12$; medium practical effect size: $Rc^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$; large practical effect size: $Rc^2 \geq .26$.

Table 6.24 shows that the canonical correlation model displayed six canonical functions (dimensions) of which the canonical correlations of the first two functions only were statistically significant. The full model r^2 type effect size (generated by $1 - 0\lambda$; $1 - .601$) was $r^2 = .40$ (large practical effect size; $Fp = .001$), suggesting that the full model explained a proportion of approximately 40% of the variance shared between the two canonical variate sets. Only the results of the first canonical function were considered for testing research hypothesis H3 because the second function explained only an additional 7% of the variance shared between the two variable sets of the data variability.

As shown in Table 6.24, the percentage of overall variance in the dependent canonical variate accounted for by the overall independent canonical variate was $Rc^2 = .30$ (30%: large practical effect). The redundancy index showed that the individual independent canonical construct variables (the composite set of psychological attributes) explained $Rc^2 = .10$ (10%: small practical effect) of the standardised variance in the individual dependent canonical construct variate variables.

As indicated earlier, with a cut-off criterion set at $Rc \geq .25$, Table 6.25 shows that the set of independent variables, which individually contributed most to explaining the overall psychological canonical construct variate variables, was:

- The psychosocial career preoccupation variables: psychosocial career adaptation preoccupations ($Rc = -.71$), psychosocial career establishment preoccupations ($Rc = -.57$) and psychosocial work/life adjustment ($Rc = -.46$);
- Three emotional intelligence variables: managing own emotions ($Rc = .54$), managing others' emotions ($Rc = .32$), perception of emotions ($Rc = .26$);

- Three career adaptability variables: control: ($R_c = .46$), confidence ($R_c = .43$), concern ($R_c = .41$); and
- Self-efficacy ($R_c = .53$).

The three psychosocial career preoccupations negatively correlated with the overall psychological canonical construct variate variables, implying that the lower the sense of career preoccupations, the higher the overall self-evaluation of the set of psychological attributes. Similarly, the more positive correlation between the emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy attributes, the higher the overall psychological attribute of self-evaluation.

In terms of the composite set of dependent variables, Table 6.25 shows that career satisfaction ($R_c = .93$) and perceived organisational support ($R_c = .77$) contributed most in explaining the variance in the overall canonical construct.

Using the cut-off criterion of $R_c = .25$, Table 6.25 shows that the following variables have contributed most in explaining the variance in the perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction variables:

- Career control ($R_c = .25$; 6%; small practical effect size);
- Psychosocial career adaptation preoccupations ($R_c = -.39$; 15%; medium practical effect size);
- Psychosocial career establishment preoccupations ($R_c = -.31$; 10%; small practical effect size);
- Psychosocial work/life adjustment preoccupations ($R_c = -.25$; 6%; small practical effect size);
- Managing own emotions ($R_c = .30$; 9%; small practical effect size); and
- Self-efficacy ($R_c = .29$; 8%; small practical effect size), control ($R_c = .25$; 6%; small practical effect size).

The negative direction of the loadings of psychosocial career preoccupations suggests that the lower the sense of career preoccupations, the higher the sense of perceived organisational support and career satisfaction. Similarly, the positive loadings of managing own emotions, self-efficacy and career control suggest that high levels of these psychological attributes may be related to higher levels of career satisfaction and perceived organisational support.

Table 6.25

Results of the Standardised Canonical Correlation Analysis for the First Canonical Function

Variate/variable	Canonical coefficient (Weight)	Structure coefficient (Canonical loading) (Rc)	Canonical loadings (Rc)	cross-	Squared multiple correlation (Rc ²)
Psychological attributes canonical variate (independent variables)					
Perception of emotions	-.01	.26	.14		.02
Managing own emotions	.23	.54	.30		.09
Managing others' emotions	.14	.32	.17		.03
Utilisation of emotions	.00	.10	.05		.00
Control	.02	.46	.25		.06
Concern	.24	.41	.22		.05
Curiosity	-.14	.22	.12		.01
Confidence	.20	.43	.24		.06
Psychosocial career establishment preoccupations	-.42	-.57	-.31		.10
Psychosocial career adaptation preoccupations	-.46	-.71	-.39		.15
Psychosocial work/life adjustment preoccupations	.01	-.46	-.25		.06
Self-efficacy	.21	.53	.29		.08
Percentage of overall variance of variables explained by their own canonical variables: .20					
Perceived organisational support, social support and career satisfaction canonical variates (composite set of latent dependent variables)					
Perceived organisational support	.39	.77	.42		.18
Social support	2.13	.39	.21		.04
Family	-.86	.35	.19		.04
Friends	-.76	.34	.19		.04
Significant others	-.86	.27	.15		.02
Career satisfaction	.72	.93	.51		.26
Percentage of overall variance of variables explained by their own canonical variables: .32					

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$

$Rc^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect size); $Rc^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (medium practical effect size) $Rc^2 \geq .26$ (large practical effect size)

In conclusion, the canonical statistical procedures indicated psychosocial career preoccupations, managing own emotions, career control and self-efficacy as the strongest psychological attributes in predicting higher levels of perceived organisational support and career satisfaction.

Figure 6.2 below presents a visual display of the overall relationship between the psychological canonical construct variate variables and the perceived organisational support, social support and career satisfaction canonical construct variate variables as discussed in the previous section.

The psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction are arrayed around the perimeter. The left semi-circle lists the independent psychological canonical construct variate variables (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), whereas the right semi-circle lists the dependent canonical construct variate variables (perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction). The relative size of the structure correlations is shown by the relative length of the bars enlarging toward the circumference (positive correlations) or towards the centre (negative correlations) (Shafto, Degani, & Kirlik, 1997). In addition, as shown in Figure 6.2, the bars reaching outwards represent positive correlations. Negative canonical correlations were observed in terms of the psychosocial career preoccupations (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations).

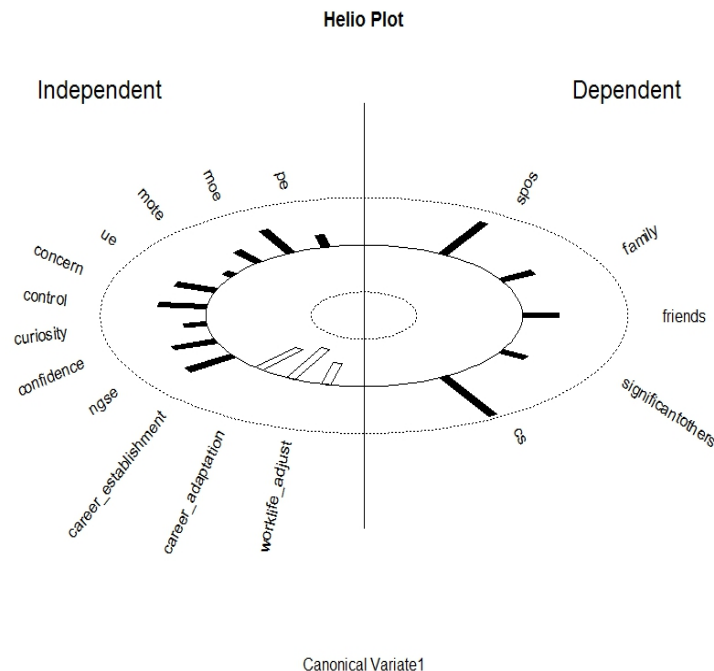


Figure 6.2: Canonical correlation Helio plot illustrating the relationship between the psychological attributes construct variate variables and the perceived organisational and social support, and career satisfaction construct variate variables

Preliminary analysis 2: Towards constructing a psychosocial profile for enhancing career success

The multiple regression analysis revealed that some biographical variables needed to be considered in the psychosocial profile because of the significant associations shown. The biographical variables identified in the multiple regression analysis are as follows:

- Psychosocial career preoccupations (age, race and job level);
- Perceived organisational support (age, race, and job level);
- Social support (age and marital status); and
- Career satisfaction (race, job level and income).

The canonical correlation analysis further revealed that low career preoccupations (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment preoccupations) and high levels of managing own emotions, career control and self-efficacy were associated with higher levels of perceived organisational support and career satisfaction. When reflecting on the dominant mean profile as illustrated in Figure 6.1, the participants achieved high levels of self-efficacy, managing own emotions and career confidence. Participants scored somewhat lower on perceptions of emotions and career satisfaction. Participants' levels of career establishment concerns were somewhat higher than career adaptation and work/life adjustment concerns, while perceived organisational support was somewhat lower than social support. The dominant mean score profile (see Figure 6.1), with the exception of career control, was similar compared to the profile of the canonical correlation analysis. Therefore, the mean score profile (see section 6.2.2) of participants supported the canonical correlation profile (see Figure 6.2). These variables were therefore considered important elements of the psychosocial profile (psychological and social strengths and deficits) for enhancing perceptions of career success (satisfaction) and taken into consideration in the further statistical analyses.

The results above provide supportive evidence for research hypothesis H3:

H3: Psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) as a composite set of latent independent variables are significantly related to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

6.4.3 Mediation modelling

Mediation modelling (see MacKinnon, 2008) represents the third stage of the inferential statistical analysis in order to investigate the dynamics of the manifested psychosocial profile further. Sections 6.4.3.1 to 6.4.3.4 report on the mediation models to test research hypothesis H4:

H4: Individuals' social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.

Multiple mediation by means of the simple mediation technique and using bootstrapping (bias corrected [BC]) in SPSS, as described by Preacher and Hayes (2008), was performed to test the mediation effect of the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) on the psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction relationship. IBM SPSS Statistics version 23 (2015) and SAS version 13.1 (2013) were utilised to perform the analysis.

Rucker et al. (2011) suggest four requirements that should be met to establish the significance of mediating effects:

- The independent variables, i.e. the psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) are significant predictors of the dependent variable (career satisfaction).
- The independent variables, i.e. the psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) are significant predictors of the mediators (perceived organisational and social support).
- The mediators (perceived organisational and social support) are significant predictors of the dependent variable (career satisfaction).
- The independent variables, i.e. the psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) are now significantly reduced (partial mediation) after statistically controlling for the mediators (perceived organisational and social support). In addition, the more reliable and stringent bootstrapping bias-corrected 95% lower and upper (CIs) should not include zero in order to support the significant indirect effect of the relevant mediator variable (Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Rucker et al., 2011).

6.4.3.1 *Mediation effect of perceived organisational and social support in the relationship between emotional intelligence and career satisfaction*

The direction of the mediating effect on the relationship between emotional intelligence and career satisfaction was significant (see Table 6.26 and Figure 6.3). Only three of the four conditions as suggested by Rucker et al. (2011) for significant mediating effects were met because the independent variable (emotional intelligence) was not significantly related to the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

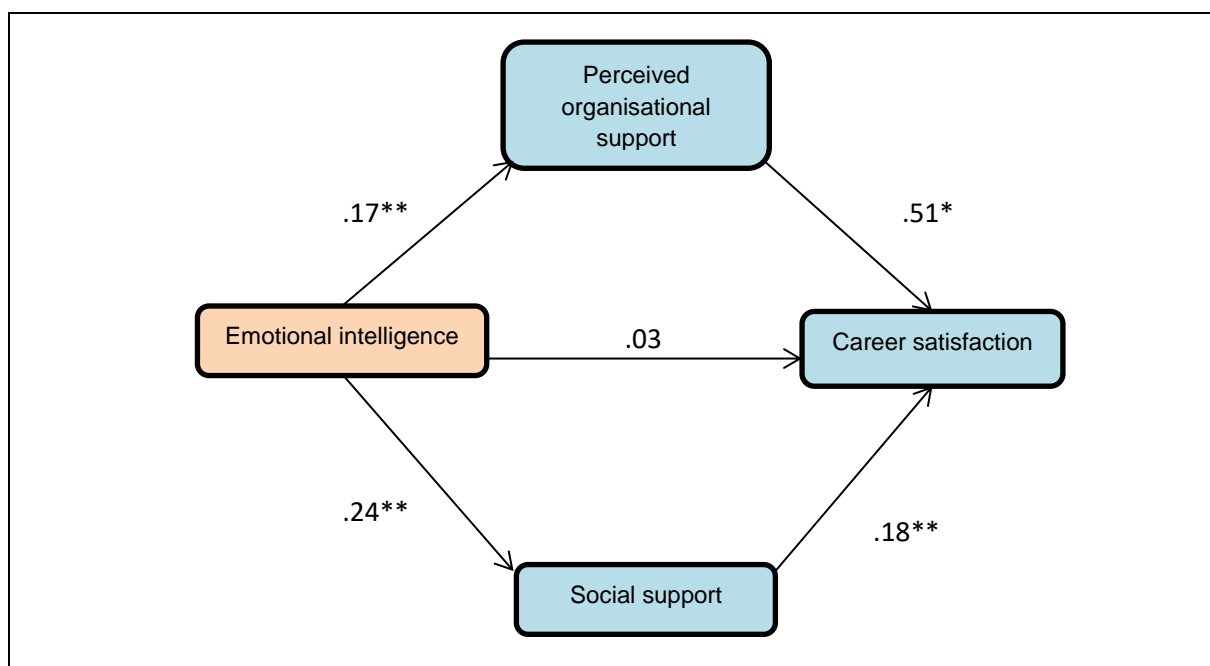
Table 6.26 and Figure 6.3 indicate that the direct effect of emotional intelligence on career satisfaction was not significant once the perceived organisational and social support had been taken into account as mediating variables (.03; $p = .439$; lower CI -.04, upper CI .10). Emotional intelligence had significant direct paths to perceived organisational and social support ($\geq .17 \leq .24$; $p \leq .01$ - positive pathway; lower CI .09; .15, upper CI .26; .33). Perceived organisational support had a significant direct path to career satisfaction (.51; $p \leq .05$ - positive pathway; lower CI .44, upper CI .57). Similarly, social support had significant direct paths to career satisfaction (.18; $p \leq .01$ - positive pathway; lower CI .09, upper CI .27). Emotional intelligence had a significant indirect effect on career satisfaction as mediated through perceived organisational and social support (.13; $p \leq .01$; lower CI .08, upper CI .18). The bias-corrected (BC) bootstrapping 95% CI did not include zero, suggesting a significant indirect (partial mediation) effect of perceived organisational and social support on the emotional intelligence and career satisfaction link.

Table 6.26

Standardised Regression Coefficients of the Variables: Emotional Intelligence on Career Satisfaction through Perceived Organisational and Social Support

Variable	Estimate	Standardised (estimate)	SE	C.R	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
								Lower	Upper
Emotional intelligence									
Effect of emotional intelligence on perceived organisational support (AES→SPOS)	.48	.17	.12	4.158	**	.17	.03	.09	.26
Effect of emotional intelligence on social support (AES→MSPSS)	.66	.24	.11	5.836	**	.25	.06	.15	.33
Effect of emotional intelligence on career satisfaction (AES→CSS)	.07	.03	.08	.799	.439	.55	.30	-.04	.10
Effect of perceived organisational support on career satisfaction (SPOS→CSS)	.42	.51	.03	14.438	*			.44	.57
Effect of social support on career satisfaction (MSPSS→CSS)	.15	.18	.03	4.957	**			.09	.27
Indirect effect									
Mediation effect		.13	.06		**			.08	.18
SPOS and MSPSS									

Note: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$. SE: standard error. C.R.: critical ratio. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval.



Notes: Values in parentheses represent the indirect effect of emotional intelligence via the social attributes (Perceived organisational and social support). BC: bias-corrected bootstrap approximation at 95% corrected confidence interval (two-sided). $N = 606$. **Standardised path coefficients are significant at $p \leq .01$. * Standardised path coefficients are significant at $p \leq .05$.

Figure 6.3: Mediation model examining the direct and indirect relationship of emotional intelligence and career satisfaction through the mediation effect of perceived organisational and social support

6.4.3.2 Mediation effect of perceived organisational and social support in the relationship between career adaptability and career satisfaction

The direction of the mediation effect on the relationship between career adaptability and career satisfaction was significant (see Table 6.27 and Figure 6.4). All four conditions as suggested by Rucker et al. (2011) for significant mediation effects were met.

As shown in Table 6.27 and Figure 6.4, the direct effect of career adaptability on career satisfaction was significant once the perceived organisational and social support variables were taken into account as mediation variables (.09; $p \leq .05$; lower CI .02, upper CI .16). Career adaptability had significant direct paths to perceived organisational and social support ($\geq .13 \leq .18$; $p \leq .05$ - positive pathway; lower CI .03; .09, upper CI .22; .27). Perceived organisational support had a significant direct path to career satisfaction (.50; $p \leq .05$ - positive pathway; lower CI .44, upper CI .56). Social support had significant direct paths to career satisfaction (.17; $p \leq .01$ - positive pathway; lower CI .08, upper CI .26). Career adaptability had a significant indirect effect on career satisfaction as mediated through perceived organisational and social support

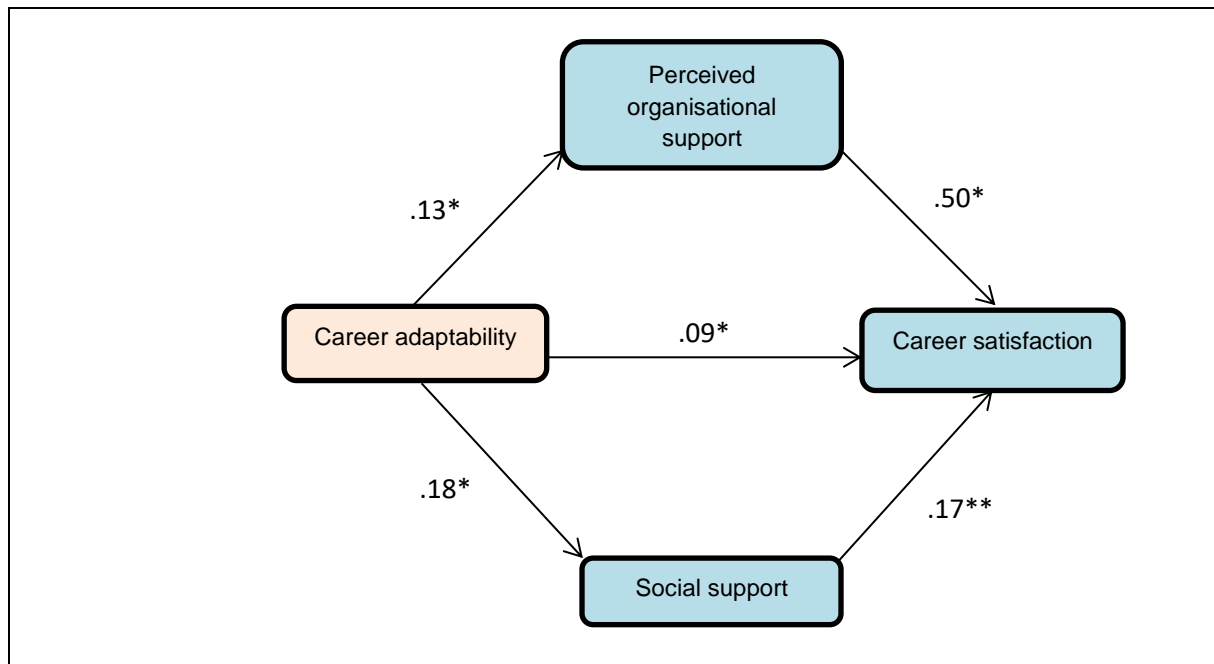
(.10; $p \leq .05$; lower CI .03, upper CI .15). The BC bootstrapping 95% lower and upper confidence interval (CI) did not include zero (Preacher & Hayes, 2008), suggesting a significant indirect (partial mediation) effect of perceived organisational and social support on the career adaptability and career satisfaction link.

Table 6.27

Standardised Regression Coefficients of the Variables: Career Adaptability on Career Satisfaction through Perceived Organisational and Social Support

Variable	Estimate	Standardised (estimate)	SE	C.R	p	R	R^2	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
								Lower	Upper
Career adaptability									
Effect of career adaptability on perceived organisational support (CAAS→SPOS)	.24	.13	.08	3.162	*	.14	.02	.03	.22
Effect of career adaptability on social support (CAAS→MSPSS)	.33	.18	.07	4.425	*	.17	.03	.09	.27
Effect of career adaptability on career satisfaction (CAAS→CSS)	.14	.09	.05	2.548	*	.56	.31	.02	.16
Effect of perceived organisational support on career satisfaction (SPOS→CSS)	.41	.50	.03	14.459	*			.44	.56
Effect of social support on career satisfaction (MSPSS→CSS)	.14	.17	.03	4.804	**			.08	.26
Indirect effect Mediation effect		.10	.05		*			.03	.15
SPOS and MSPSS									

Note: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$. SE: standard error. C.R.: critical ratio. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval.



Notes: Values in parentheses represent the indirect effect of career adaptability via the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support). BC: bias-corrected bootstrap approximation at 95% corrected confidence interval (two-sided). $N = 606$. **Standardised path coefficients are significant at $p \leq .01$ * Standardised path coefficients are significant at $p \leq .05$.

Figure 6.4: Mediation model examining the direct and indirect relation of career adaptability and career satisfaction through the mediation effect of perceived organisational and social support

6.4.3.3 Mediation effect of perceived organisational and social support in the relationship between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction

The direction of the mediation effect on the relationship between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction was significant (see Table 6.28 and Figure 6.5). Only three of the four conditions as suggested by Rucker et al. (2011) for significant mediation effects were met because the independent variable (psychosocial career preoccupations) was not significantly related to the mediation variable (social support).

Table 6.28 and Figure 6.5 show the direct effect of psychosocial career preoccupations on career satisfaction was significant once the perceived organisational and social support had been taken into account as mediation variables ($-.24$; $p \leq .01$; lower CI $-.30$; upper CI $-.17$). Psychosocial career preoccupations had a significant direct path to perceived organisational support ($-.33$; $p \leq .05$ – negative pathway; lower CI $-.39$; upper CI $-.26$). Perceived organisational and social support had a significant direct path to career satisfaction ($\geq .20 \leq .43$; $p \leq .05$ – positive pathway; lower CI $.12$; $.36$; upper CI $.28$; $.50$). Psychosocial career

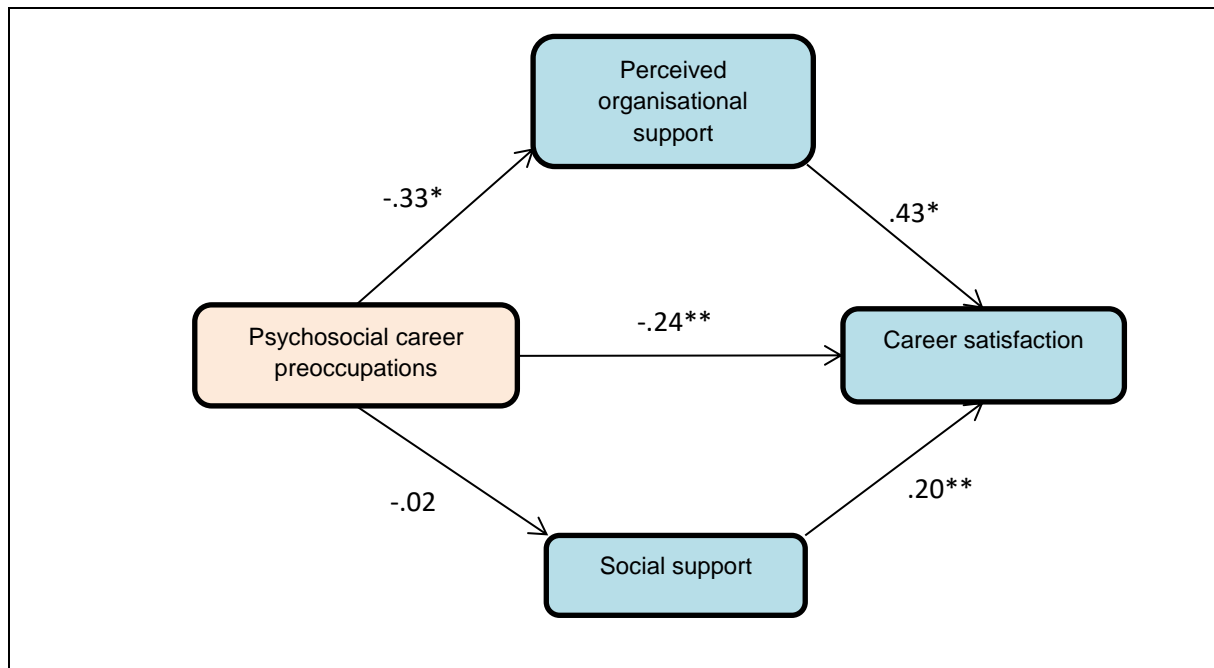
preoccupations did not have a significant direct path to social support ($-.02$; $p = .659$; lower CI $-.10$; upper CI $.06$). Psychosocial career preoccupations had a significant indirect effect on career satisfaction as mediated through perceived organisational and social support ($-.15$; $p \leq .01$ - negative pathway; lower CI $-.19$; upper CI $-.11$). The BC bootstrap 95% lower and upper confidence interval (CI) did not include zero suggesting a significant indirect (partial mediation) effect of perceived organisational and social support on the psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction link.

Table 6.28

Standardised Regression Coefficients of the Variables: Psychosocial Career Preoccupations on Career Satisfaction through Perceived Organisational and Social Support

Variable	Estimate	Standardised (estimate)	SE	C.R	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
								Lower	Upper
Perceived career preoccupations									
Effect of psychosocial career preoccupations on perceived organisational support (PCPS→SPOS)	-.44	-.33	.05	-8.374	*	.33	.11	-.39	-.26
Effect of psychosocial career preoccupations on social support (PCPS→MSPSS)	-.03	-.02	.06	-.509	.656	.00	.00	-.10	.06
Effect of psychosocial career preoccupations on career satisfaction (PCPS→CSS)	-.26	-.24	.04	-6.741	**	.59	.35	-.30	-.17
Effect of perceived organisational support on career satisfaction (SPOS→CSS)	.35	.43	.03	12.167	*			.36	.50
Effect of social support on career satisfaction (MSPSS→CSS)	.16	.20	.03	5.871	**			.12	.28
Indirect effect		-.15	.02		**			-.19	-.11
Mediation effect									
SPOS and MSPSS									

Note: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$. SE: standard error. C.R.: critical ratio. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval.



Notes: Values in parentheses represent the indirect effect of psychosocial career preoccupations via the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support). BC: bias-corrected bootstrap approximation at 95% corrected confidence interval (two-sided). $N = 606$. **Standardised path coefficients are significant at $p \leq .01$ * Standardised path coefficients are significant at $p \leq .05$.

Figure 6.5: Mediation model examining the direct and indirect relation of psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction through the mediation effect of perceived organisational and social support

6.4.3.4 Mediation effect of perceived organisational and social support in the relationship between self-efficacy and career satisfaction

The direction of the mediation effect on the relationship between self-efficacy and career satisfaction was significant (see Table 6.29 and Figure 6.6) and met all four conditions for significant mediation effects as suggested by Rucker et al. (2011).

As shown in Table 6.29 and Figure 6.6, the direct effect of self-efficacy on career satisfaction was significant once the perceived organisational and social support variables had been taken into account as mediation variables (.15; $p \leq .01$; lower CI .08; upper CI .22). Self-efficacy had a significant direct path to perceived organisational and social support ($\geq .16 \leq .19$; $p \leq .05$ – positive pathway; lower CI .07; .09 upper CI .26; .28). Perceived organisational support had a significant direct path to career satisfaction (.49; $p \leq .05$ – positive pathway; lower CI .42; upper CI .55). Social support had a significant direct path to career satisfaction (.16; $p \leq .01$ – positive pathway; lower CI .09; upper CI .25). Self-efficacy had a significant indirect effect on career satisfaction as mediated through perceived organisational and social support (.11; $p \leq .01$;

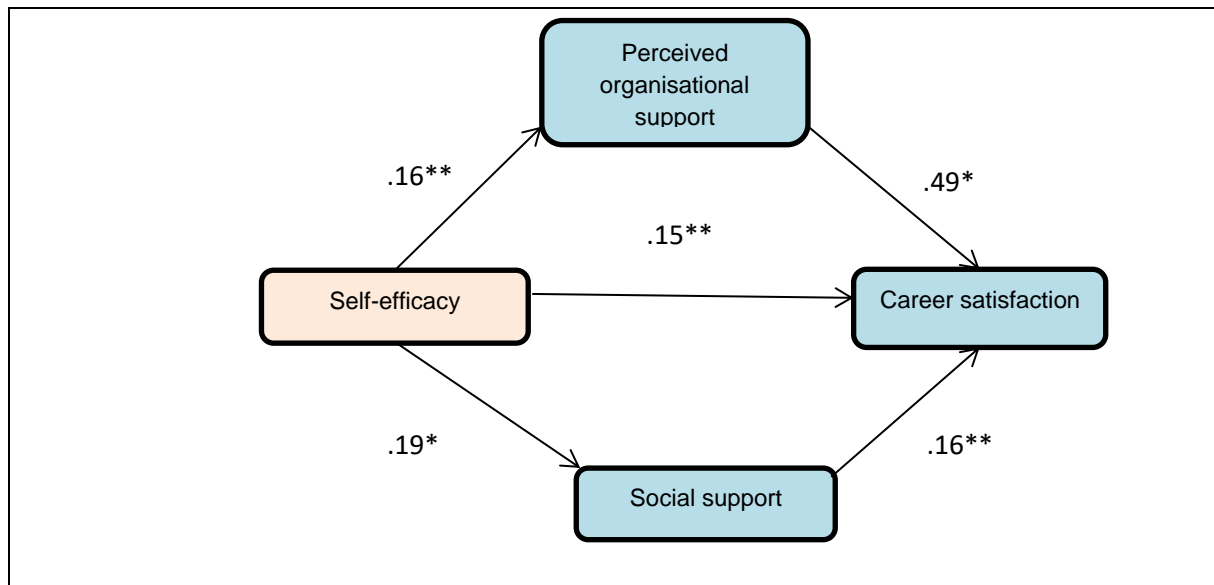
lower CI .06; upper CI .17). The BC bootstrapping 95% lower and upper confidence interval (CI) did not include zero (Preacher & Hayes, 2008), suggesting a significant indirect (partial mediation) effect of perceived organisational and social support on the self-efficacy and career satisfaction link.

Table 6.29

Standardised Regression Coefficients of the Variables: Self-efficacy on Career Satisfaction through Perceived Organisational and Social Support

Variable	Estimate	Standardised (estimate)	SE	C.R	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
								Lower	Upper
Self-efficacy									
Effect of self-efficacy on perceived organisational support (NGSE→SPOS)	.33	.16	.09	3.888	**	.17	.03	.07	.26
Effect of self-efficacy on social support (NGSE→MSPSS)	.39	.19	.08	4.696	*	.20	.04	.09	.28
Effect of self-efficacy on career satisfaction (NGSE→CSS)	.25	.15	.06	4.138	**	.57	.32	.08	.22
Effect of perceived organisational support on career satisfaction (SPOS→CSS)	.41	.49	.03	14.258	*			.42	.55
Effect of social support on career satisfaction (MSPSS→CSS)	.13	.16	.03	4.565	**			.09	.25
Indirect effect Mediation effect		.11	.06		**			.06	.17
SPOS and MSPSS									

Note: N = 606. ****p* ≤ .001; ***p* ≤ .01; **p* ≤ .05. SE: standard error. C.R.: critical ratio. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval.



Notes: Values in parentheses represent the indirect effect of self-efficacy via the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support). BC: bias-corrected bootstrap approximation at 95% corrected confidence interval (two-sided). $N = 606$. ** Standardised path coefficients are significant at $p \leq .01$. * Standardised path coefficients are significant at $p \leq .05$.

Figure 6.6: Mediation model examining the direct and indirect relation of self-efficacy and career satisfaction through the mediation effect of perceived organisational and social support

Preliminary analysis 3: Towards constructing a psychosocial profile for enhancing career success

In summary, as indicated in Table 6.25, the psychosocial profile derived from the canonical correlation analysis indicated that professional women who displayed low career preoccupations and high levels of managing own emotions, career control and self-efficacy might experience high levels of perceived organisational support and career satisfaction. Through the mediation analysis, perceived organisational and social support were observed to strengthen links between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction. Furthermore, the perceived organisational support variable was observed to lower career preoccupations and strengthen career satisfaction. As a result, career preoccupations or concerns about career development when significantly reduced, increased career satisfaction through perceived organisational support, which seemed to be significant.

Therefore, career counsellors, HR practitioners and organisational psychologists should consider social attribute interventions (perceived organisational and social support) as core

aspects for the career development and satisfaction of professional women in order to increase perceptions of career success.

The results above provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H4:

H4: Individuals' social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.

6.4.4 Structural equation modelling: Assessing the construct validity of the empirically manifested structural model

This section reports the results of the SEM performed to assess the model fit of the empirically manifested structural model. The results of the canonical correlation analysis and mediation modelling were used as input in testing the structural model to test research hypothesis H5:

H5: The hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile has a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model as based on the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors.

The motivation for applying this approach was to validate empirically the psychosocial model that emerged from numerous statistical analyses of the interrelationship and overall relationship between the variables. The test statistics and goodness indices with a marginal range of RMSEA and SRMR of $\leq .10$ (model acceptance) and $\leq .08$ (good model fit), together with the CFI and NNFI obtaining cut-off values of .90 or higher, are considered an acceptable model fit (Gillespie & Perron, 2008; Hooper et al., 2008; Hoyle, 2011; Maydeu-Olivares & Joe, 2014). In addition, low AIC values suggest a more acceptable model fit (Hair et al., 2012; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Table 6.30 summarises the fit statistics of the overall structural model that has been tested.

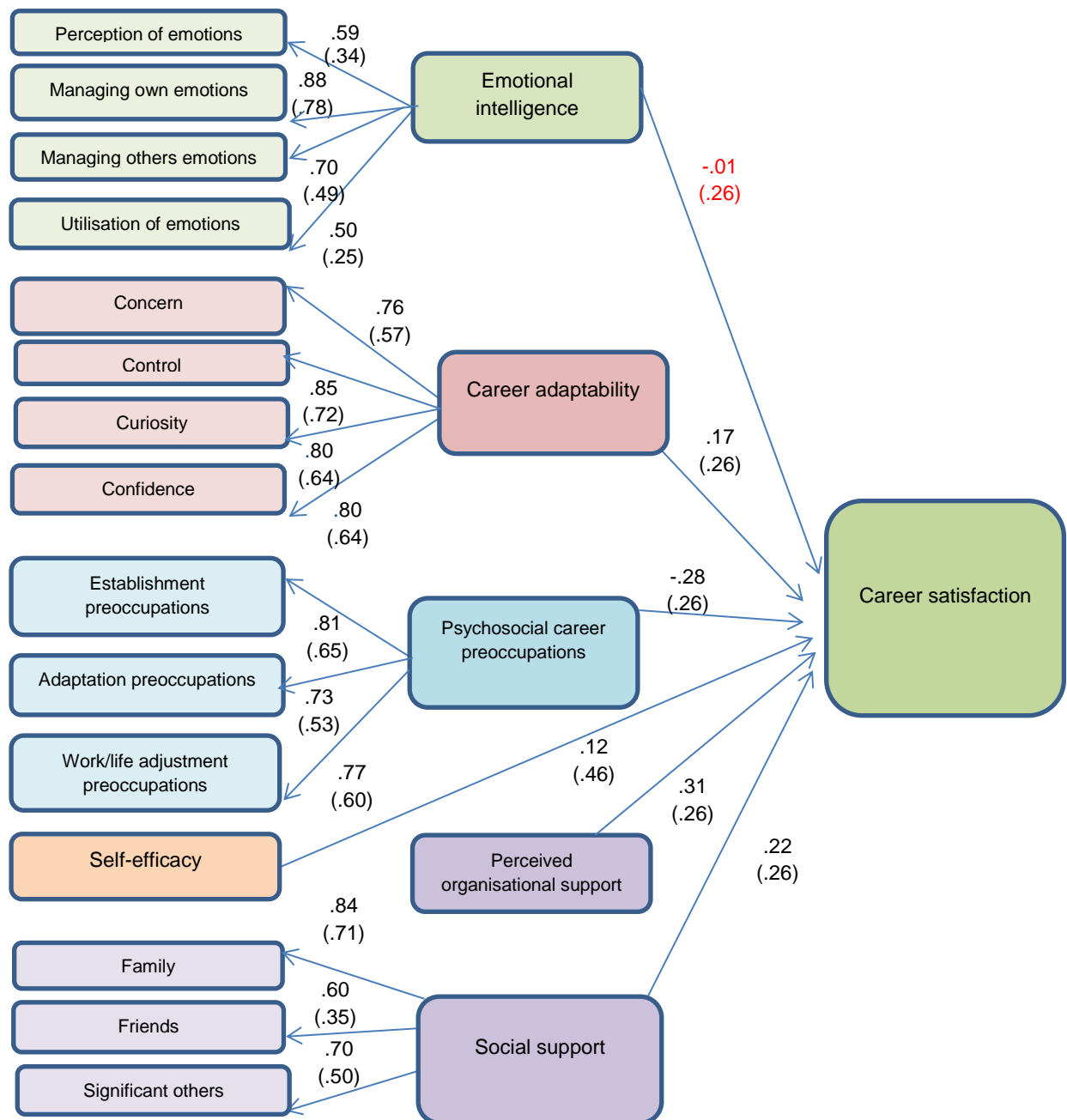
Table 6.30

Structural Equation Modelling Results: Fit Statistics

Model	CMIN	Df	CMIN/df	<i>p</i>	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	NNFI	AIC
1	354.21	101	3.51	.000	.07	.05	.94	.91	458.21

Note: CMIN (X^2) = chi-square; df = degrees of freedom; Chi-square/RMSEA significant at $p = .000$; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root-mean-square residual; CFI = comparative fit index; NNFI = non-normed fit index; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

As shown in Table 6.30, a SEM for all the factors, emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support, as well as career satisfaction generated an acceptable model fit (chi-square/df ratio = 3.51; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .05; CFI = .94; NNFI = .91; AIC = 458.21).



Note: All standardised path coefficient estimates *** $p \leq .000$. Squared multiple correlations (R^2) are shown in brackets.

Figure 6.7: Best-fit structural model linking the significant psychological attributes with the social attributes, including the career satisfaction construct variable.

Figure 6.7 shows the standardised path coefficient estimates of the psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) to predict career satisfaction. Comparable to the results observed in the canonical correlation analyses,

managing own emotions ($\beta = .88$), career control ($\beta = .85$) and psychosocial career establishment preoccupations ($\beta = .81$) were the strongest predictors of the psychological attributes, with managing own emotions contributing the most and positively in explaining the variance in the psychological attributes.

As shown in Figure 6.7, family ($\beta = .84$) and significant others ($\beta = .70$) were the strongest predictors of the social attributes, with family contributing the most and positively in explaining the variance in the social attributes. Overall, the psychological attributes positively predicted the career satisfaction construct. However, the overall emotional intelligence attribute construct was not a significant predictor of the career satisfaction attribute construct.

The above results provided supportive evidence for the research hypothesis H5:

H5: The hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile has a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model as based on the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors.

Preliminary analysis 4: Towards constructing a psychosocial profile for enhancing career success

Table 6.25 shows that the psychosocial profile, as derived from the canonical correlation analysis, suggests that professional women who display low career preoccupations and high levels of managing own emotions (emotional intelligence), career control and career confidence (career adaptability) and self-efficacy could experience higher levels of perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction. Building on the canonical correlation analysis, Figure 6.7 shows that the SEM has further revealed that in overall, the psychosocial profile (career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction generated a good model fit. The results suggest that when experiences or career preoccupations are low and managing own emotions, career control and career confidence and self-efficacy are high, participants are likely to experience higher levels of career satisfaction. Similarly, participants with high experiences or perceptions of organisational and family support would experience increased career satisfaction. However, the overall emotional intelligence was not a significant predictor of career satisfaction.

In summary, the statistical analyses showed a common pattern that emerged up to this point regarding the core elements of the psychosocial profile for the career success of professional

women. The structural model indicated career preoccupations and perceived organisational support as the strongest predictors of career satisfaction. The canonical correlation analysis corroborated the relatively strong role of career preoccupations in explaining the variance in career satisfaction and perceived organisational support. The mediation analysis further showed that individuals' career preoccupations related to higher levels of career satisfaction through their perceptions of organisational support.

The regression analysis showed that age, race and job level significantly predicted their career preoccupations and perceptions of organisational support, while race, job level and income predicted career satisfaction. The core elements of the psychosocial profile for career success seemed therefore to revolve around participants' career preoccupations, perceptions of organisational and social support in relation to their career satisfaction. Interventions should focus on lowering career concerns and increasing perceived organisational and social support for professional women with due consideration of the differing needs of age, race and job level groups. Managing own emotions (emotional intelligence), career control and career confidence (career adaptability) and self-efficacy could function as valuable psychological resources in further enhancing career satisfaction.

6.4.5 Hierarchical moderated regression analysis

On the basis of the canonical correlation results and the best fit SEM presented in Figure 6.7 and Table 6.30, a hierarchical moderated regression analysis was performed to test research hypothesis H6:

H6: There is a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction.

Standardised mean-centred predictor data was utilised with the process procedure for SPSS version 2.15 (2015). This procedure allowed the researcher to determine which of the biographical variables moderated the relationship between the independent and the dependent variable constructs.

The biographical variables were coded as follows:

(a) Age

- ≥ 45 years = 1
- ≤ 44 = 0

(b) Race

- White = 1
- Black (African, Coloured, Indian, other) = 0

(c) Marital status

- Married = 1
- Single/divorced or separated/widowed = 0

(d) Number of children

- 1+ = 1
- 0 = 0

(e) Job level

- Manager/senior manager/deputy director/director/CEO = 1
- Employee = 0

(f) Total monthly income

- $\geq 30\,000+$ = 1
- $\leq 29\,999$ = 0

(g) Education level

- Honors/master's/PhD = 1
- Certificate/diploma/degree = 0

The results of the hierarchical moderated regression models are reported in Tables 6.31 to 6.35 below.

6.4.5.1 Age as a moderator

No significant main and interaction effects were observed for age, implying that age did not act as a significant moderating variable for the relationship between the psychosocial attributes and the career satisfaction construct, and therefore will not be reported.

6.4.5.2 Race as a moderator

Only significant models of the psychosocial attributes are reported in Table 6.31, which depicts the final step of the results of the moderated regression analysis with emotional intelligence and perceived organisational support (independent variables) and race (moderator) as predictors of career satisfaction (dependent variable).

Table 6.31

Results of the Moderated Regression Analysis: The Effects of Race, Emotional Intelligence and Perceived Organisational Support on Career Satisfaction

Model		Standardised coefficients		t	p	F	R ²	R	f ² (Cohen)
		Beta	SE						
		β							
1	(Constant)	3.47	.06	56.16	***				
	AES	.84	.16	5.36	***				
	Race	.47	.08	6.01	***				
	AES X race	-.43	.19	-2.22	*	23.38*	.11	.33	.12+
2	(Constant)	3.60	.06	63.79	***				
	SPOS	.48	.05	9.80	***				
	Race	.26	.07	3.67	**				
	SPOS X race	-.12	.06	-1.93	*	74.97*	.28	.53	.39+++

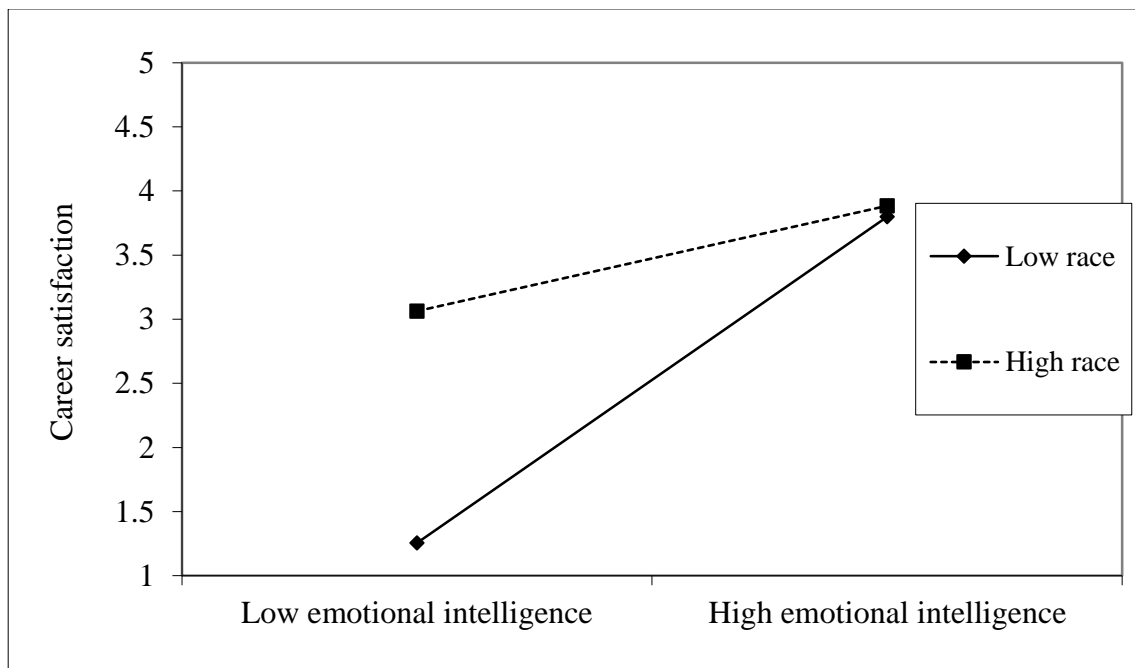
Note: N = 606. Dependent variable: career satisfaction. Standardised regression beta coefficient (β) significant at *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$. f^2 = Cohen's practical effect size (+ $f^2 \geq .02$ (small practical effect size); ++ $f^2 \geq .03 \leq .15$ (medium practical effect size) +++ $f^2 \geq .35$ (large practical effect size))

As shown in Table 6.31, in terms of the main effects, the variable constructs emotional intelligence ($\beta = .84$; $p \leq .001$), perceived organisational support ($\beta = .48$; $p \leq .001$) and race ($\beta = .26 \geq .47 \leq$; $p \leq .01$) acted as significant predictors of career satisfaction. There was a significant interaction effect between race and emotional intelligence in predicting career satisfaction ($F = 23.38$; $p \leq .05$; $R^2 = .11$; $f^2 = .12$, small practical effect size). Similarly, there was a significant interaction effect between race and perceived organisational support in

predicting career satisfaction ($F = 74.97$; $p \leq .05$; $R^2 = .28$; $f^2 = .39$, large practical effect size). Overall, the interaction effects were small to large practical effect size.

No significant main and interaction effects were observed between race, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, social support and career satisfaction.

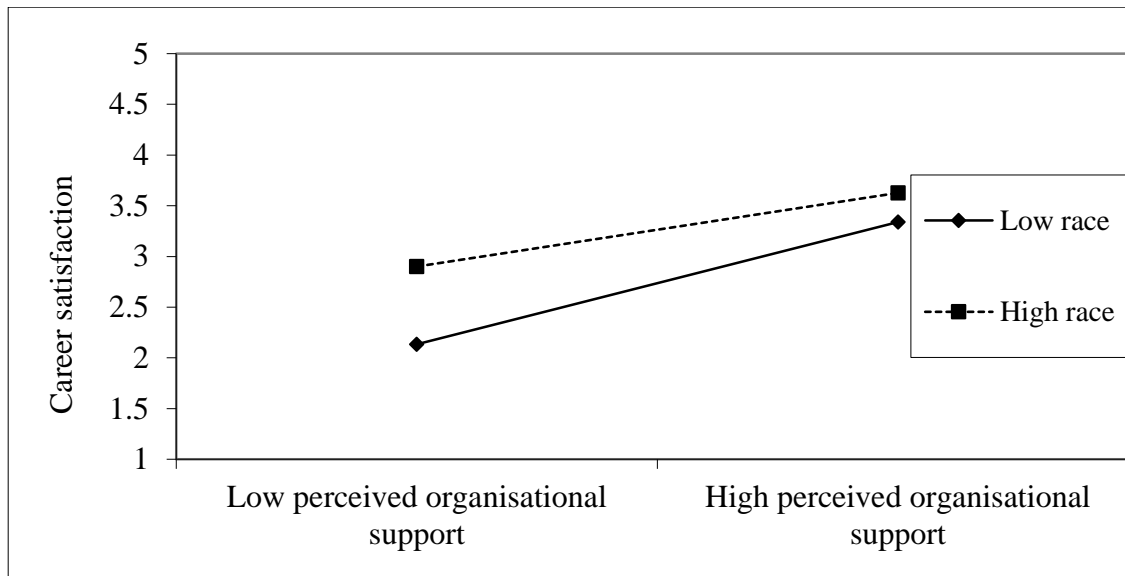
The nature of the interaction was explored by means of simple slope tests and graphing the interaction with values of the moderator at the mean, as well as one SD above and below the mean (Cohen, Cohen, Aiken, & West, 2003). As shown in Figure 6.8, the relationship between emotional intelligence and career satisfaction was stronger for white participants (high race: dummy coded 1) compared to black (African, Coloured, Indian, other) participants (low race: dummy coded 0). The white participants who scored high on emotional intelligence also had significantly higher scores than the black participants on career satisfaction.



Notes: Low race (dummy coded 0: black – African, Coloured, Indian, other); high race (dummy coded 1: white)

Figure 6.8: Interaction between emotional intelligence, race and career satisfaction

Figure 6.9 shows that the relationship between perceived organisational support and career satisfaction was stronger for white participants (high race) compared to black participants (low race). The white participants who scored high on perceived organisational support also had significantly higher scores than the black (African, Coloured, Indian, other) participants on career satisfaction.



Notes: Low race (dummy coded 0: Black - African, Coloured, Indian, other); high race (dummy coded 1: white)

Figure 6.9: Interaction between perceived organisational support, race and career satisfaction

6.4.5.3 Marital status as a moderator

Only the significant model of the psychosocial attributes is reported in Table 6.32, which depicts the final step of the results of the moderated regression analysis with self-efficacy (independent variable) and marital status (moderator) as predictors of career satisfaction (dependent variable).

Table 6.32

Results of the Moderated Regression Analysis: The Effects of Self-efficacy and Marital Status on Career Satisfaction

Model	Standardised coefficients		t	p	F	R ²	R	f ² (Cohen)
	Beta	SE						
	β							
1 (Constant)	3.87	.05	83.64	***				
NGSE	.41	.08	4.92	***				
Marital status	-.33	.08	-4.01	**				
NGSE x marital status	.34	.14	2.40	*	29.39*	.13	.36	.15+

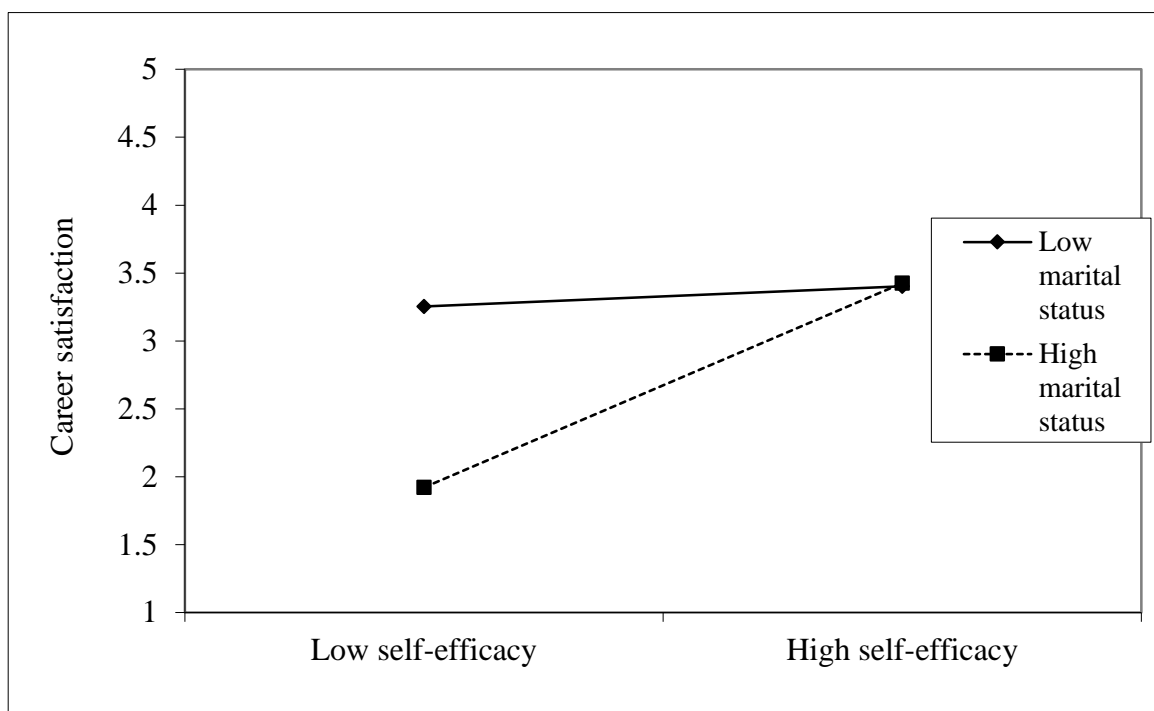
Note: N = 606. Dependent variable: career satisfaction. Standardised regression beta coefficient (β) significant at *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$. f^2 = Cohen's practical effect size (+ $f^2 \leq .02$ (small practical effect size); ++ $f^2 \geq .03 \leq .15$ (medium practical effect size) +++ $f^2 \geq .35$ (large practical effect size)

As shown in Table 6.32, in terms of the main effects, the variable construct self-efficacy ($\beta = .41$; $p \leq .001$) and marital status ($\beta = -.33$; $p \leq .001$) acted as significant predictors of career satisfaction. There was a significant interaction effect between marital status and self-efficacy

in predicting career satisfaction ($F = 29.36$; $p \leq .05$; $R^2 = .13$; $f^2 = .15$). Hence, the interaction effect was medium practical effect size.

No significant main and interaction effects were observed between marital status, emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction.

The nature of the interaction was explored by means of simple slope tests and graphing the interaction with values of the moderator at the mean, as well as one standard deviation above and below the mean (Cohen et al., 2003). Figure 6.10 shows that the relationship between self-efficacy and career satisfaction was stronger for married participants (high marital status: dummy coded 1) compared to single/divorced/separated/widowed participants (low marital status: dummy coded 0). The married participants who scored high on self-efficacy also had significantly higher scores than the single participants on career satisfaction.



Notes: Low marital status (dummy coded 0: single/divorced/separated/widowed); high marital status (dummy coded 1: married)

Figure 6.10: Interaction between self-efficacy, marital status and career satisfaction

6.4.5.4 Number of children as a moderator

Only the significant model of the psychosocial attributes is reported in Table 6.33, which depicts the final step of the results of the moderated regression analysis with self-efficacy (independent

variable) and number of children (moderator) as predictors of career satisfaction (dependent variable).

Table 6.33

Results of the Moderated Regression Analysis: The Effects of Self-efficacy and Number of Children on Career Satisfaction

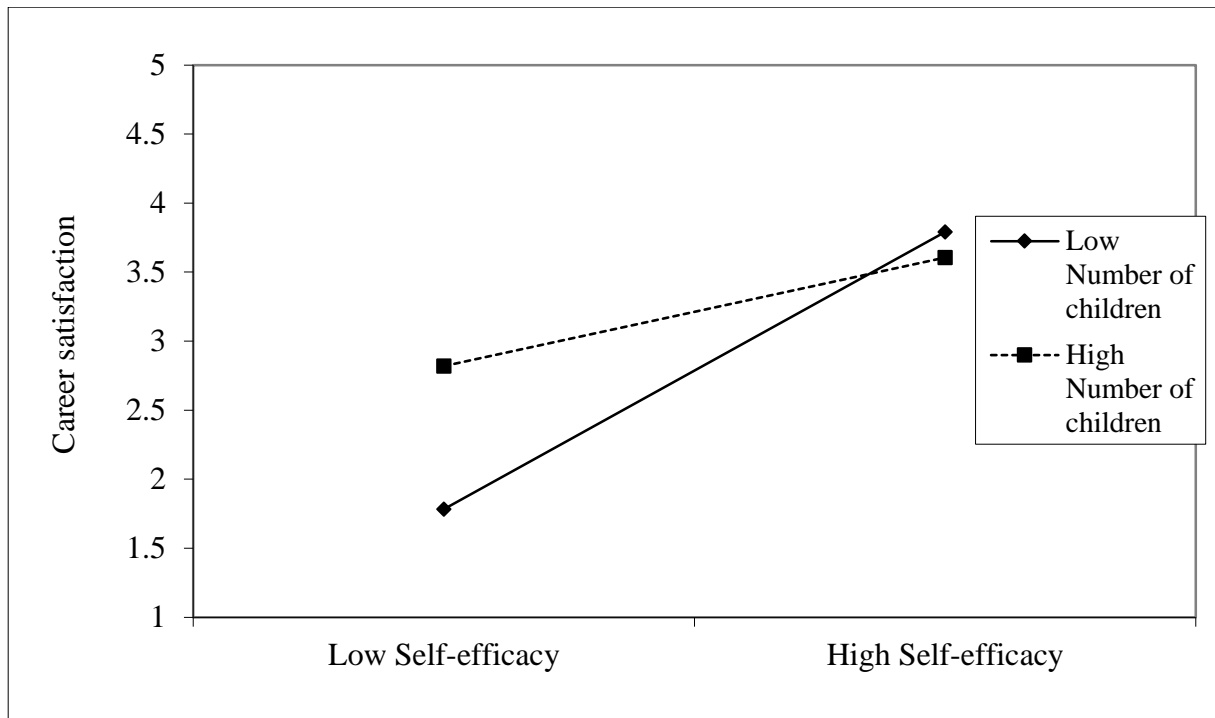
Model		Standardised coefficients		t	p	F	R ²	R	f ² (Cohen)
		Beta	SE						
		β							
1	(Constant)	3.64	.06	62.55	***				
	NGSE	.70	.10	6.94	***				
	Number of children	.21	.08	2.76	**				
	NGSE x number of children	-.31	.14	-2.23	*	25.44*	.12	.34	.14 +

Note: N = 606. Dependent variable: career satisfaction. Standardised regression beta coefficient (β) significant at *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$. f^2 = Cohen's practical effect size (+ $f^2 \leq .02$ (small practical effect size); ++ $f^2 \geq .03 \leq .15$ (medium practical effect size) +++ $f^2 \geq .35$ (large practical effect size))

As shown in Table 6.33, in terms of the main effects, the variable construct self-efficacy ($\beta = .70$; $p \leq .001$) and number of children ($\beta = .21$; $p \leq .01$) acted as significant predictors of career satisfaction. There was a significant interaction effect between number of children and self-efficacy in predicting career satisfaction ($F = 25.44$; $p \leq .05$; $R^2 = .12$; $f^2 = .14$). Hence, the interaction effect was small in practical effect size.

No significant main and interaction effects were observed between marital status, emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction.

The nature of the interaction was explored by means of simple slope tests and graphing the interaction with values of the moderator at the mean, as well as one standard deviation above and below the mean (Cohen et al., 2003). Figure 6.11 shows that the relationship between self-efficacy and career satisfaction was stronger for participants with zero children (low number of children: dummy coded 0) compared to participants with one or more children (high number of children: dummy coded 1). The participants with no children who scored high on self-efficacy also had significantly higher scores than the participants with one or more children on career satisfaction.



Notes: Low number of children (dummy coded 0: 0 number of children); high number of children (dummy coded 1: 1+ number of children)

Figure 6.11: Interaction between self-efficacy, number of children and career satisfaction

6.4.5.5 Job level as a moderator

Only significant models of the psychosocial attributes are reported in Table 6.34, which depicts the final step of the results of the moderated regression analysis with emotional intelligence and self-efficacy (independent variables) and job level (moderator) as predictors of career satisfaction (dependent variable).

Table 6.34

Results of the Moderated Regression Analysis: The Effects of Emotional Intelligence, Self-Efficacy and Job Level on Career Satisfaction

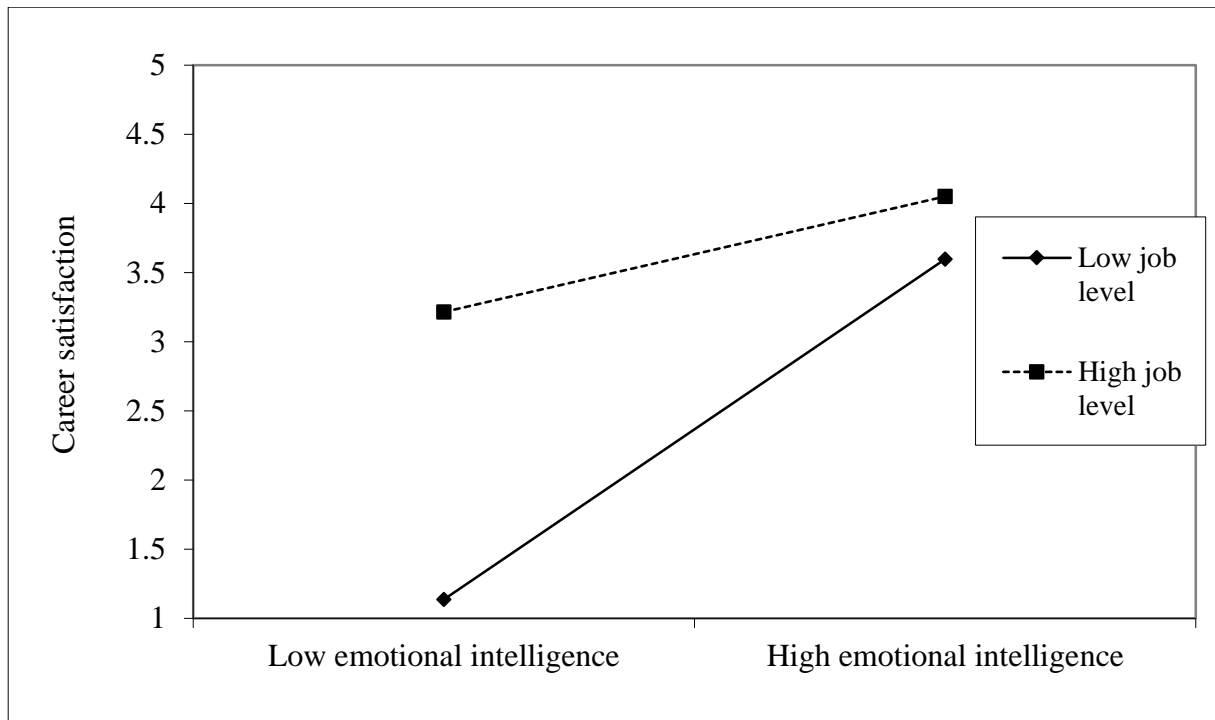
Model		Standardised coefficients		t	p	F	R ²	R	f ² (Cohen)
		Beta	SE						
		β							
1	(Constant)	3.35	.06	53.03	***				
	AES	.82	.17	4.95	***				
	Job level	.63	.08	8.08	***				
	AES x job level	-.41	.20	-2.05	*	33.61*	.15	.38	.18++
2	(Constant)	3.39	.06	54.99	***				
	NGSE	.78	.12	6.63	***				
	Job level	.57	.08	7.49	***				
	NGSE x job level	-.37	.14	-2.64	**	44.99**	.19	.43	.23++

Note: N = 606. Dependent variable: career satisfaction. Standardised regression beta coefficient (β) significant at *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$. f^2 = Cohen's practical effect size (+ $f^2 \leq .02$ (small practical effect size); ++ $f^2 \geq .03 \leq .15$ (medium practical effect size) +++ $f^2 \geq .35$ (large practical effect size))

As shown in Table 6.34, in terms of the main effects, the variable constructs emotional intelligence ($\beta = .82$; $p \leq .001$), self-efficacy ($\beta = .78$; $p \leq .001$) and job level ($\beta = .57 \geq .63 \leq$; $p \leq .001$) acted as significant predictors of career satisfaction. There was a significant interaction effect between job level and emotional intelligence in predicting career satisfaction ($F = 33.61$; $p \leq .05$; $R^2 = .15$; $f^2 = .18$, medium practical effect size). Similarly, there was a significant interaction effect between job level and self-efficacy in predicting career satisfaction ($F = 44.99$; $p \leq .01$; $R^2 = .19$; $f^2 = .23$, medium practical effect size). Overall, all the interaction effects were medium in practical effect.

No significant main and interaction effects were observed between job level, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction.

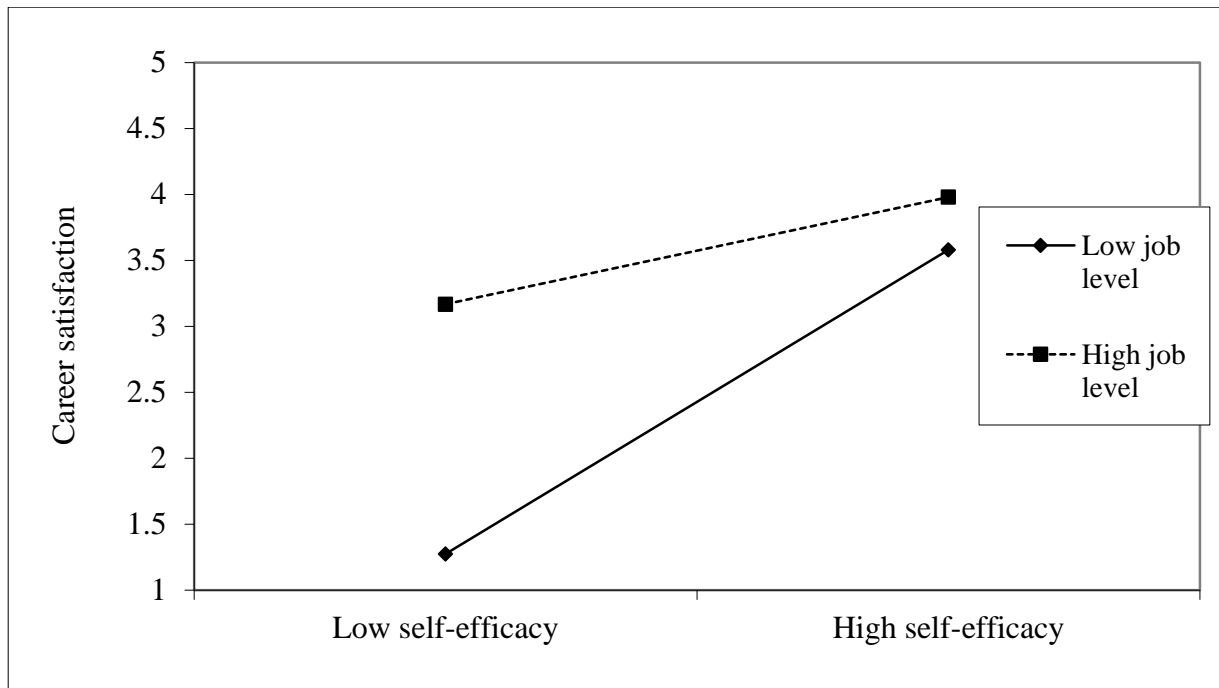
The nature of the interaction was explored by means of simple slope tests and graphing the interaction with values of the moderator at the mean, as well as one standard deviation above and below the mean (Cohen et al., 2003). As shown in Figure 6.12, the relationship between emotional intelligence and career satisfaction was stronger for participants at manager/senior manager/deputy director/director/executive level (high job level: dummy coded 1) compared to employee participants (low job level: dummy coded 0). The manager/senior manager/deputy director/director/executive participants who scored high on emotional intelligence also had significantly higher scores than the employee participants on career satisfaction.



Notes: Low job level (dummy coded 0: employee); high job level (dummy coded 1: manager/senior manager/deputy director/director/executive).

Figure 6.12: Interaction between emotional intelligence, job level and career satisfaction

Figure 6.13 shows that the relationship between self-efficacy and career satisfaction was stronger for participants at manager/senior manager/deputy director/director/executive level (high job level) compared to employee participants (low job level). The manager/senior manager/deputy director/director/executive participants who scored high on self-efficacy also had significantly higher scores than the employee participants on career satisfaction.



Notes: Low job level (dummy coded 0: employee); high job level (dummy coded 1: manager/senior manager/deputy director/director/executive)

Figure 6.13: Interaction between self-efficacy, job level and career satisfaction

6.4.5.6 Total monthly income as a moderator

No significant main and interaction effects were observed for total monthly income, implying that total monthly income did not act as a significant moderating variable for the relationship between the psychosocial model attributes construct variables and the career satisfaction construct variable and therefore will not be reported.

6.4.5.7 Education level as a moderator

The only significant model of the psychosocial attributes construct variables is reported in Table 6.35, which depicts the final step of the results of the moderated regression analysis with emotional intelligence (independent variable) and education (moderator) as predictors of career satisfaction (dependent variable).

Table 6.35

Results of the Moderated Regression Analysis: The Effects of Emotional Intelligence and Education Level on Career Satisfaction

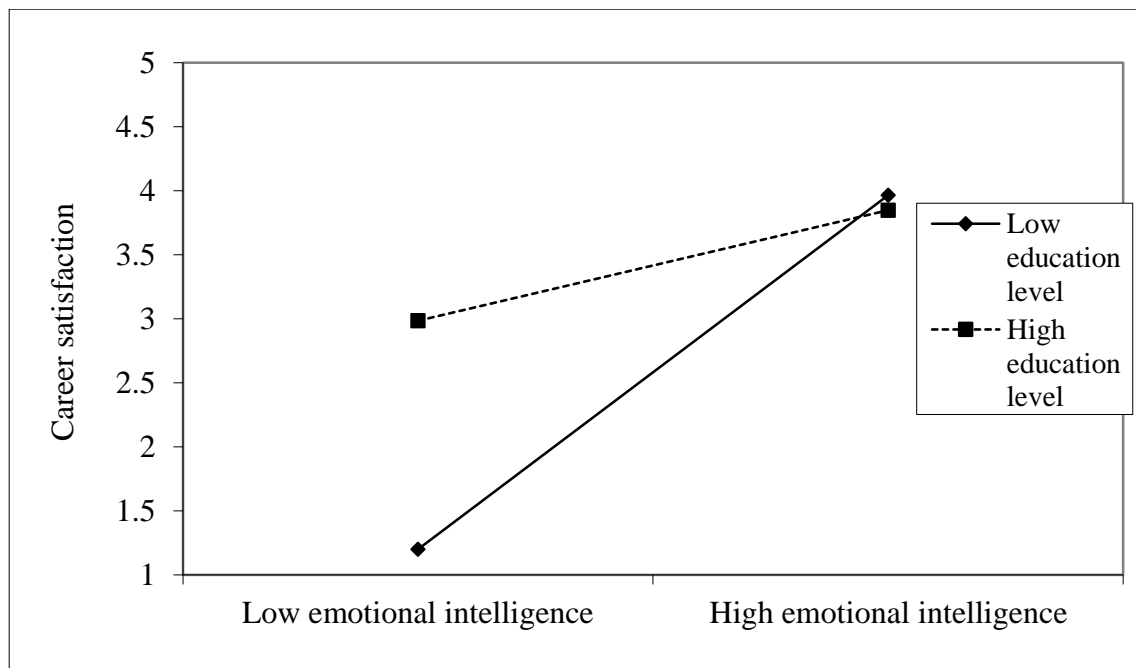
Model		Standardised coefficients		t	p	F	R ²	R	f^2 (Cohen)
		Beta	SE						
		β							
1	(Constant)	3.45	.08	45.74	***				
	AES	.91	.21	4.42	***				
	Education level	.42	.09	4.75	**				
	AES x education level	-.48	.21	-2.06	*	18.16	.09	.29	.10+

Note: N = 606. Dependent variable: career satisfaction. Standardised regression beta coefficient (β) significant at *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$. f^2 = Cohen's practical effect size (+ $f^2 \leq .02$ (small practical effect size); ++ $f^2 \geq .03 \leq .15$ (medium practical effect size) +++ $f^2 \geq .35$ (large practical effect size))

As shown in Table 6.35, in terms of the main effects, the variable construct emotional intelligence ($\beta = .91$; $p \leq .001$) and education level ($\beta = .42$; $p \leq .001$) acted as significant predictors of career satisfaction. There was a significant interaction effect between education level and emotional intelligence in predicting career satisfaction ($F = 18.16$; $p \leq .05$; $R^2 = .09$; $f^2 = .10$). Hence, the interaction effect was small in practical effect.

No significant main and interaction effects were observed between education, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction.

The nature of the interaction was explored by means of simple slope tests and graphing the interaction with values of the moderator at the mean, as well as one standard deviation above and below the mean (Cohen et al., 2003). Figure 6.14 shows that the relationship between emotional intelligence and career satisfaction was stronger for participants with a certificate/diploma/degree (low education level at undergraduate level: dummy coded 0) compared to participants with an honours/master's/PhD degree (high education level at post-graduate level: dummy coded 1). The participants with certificate/diploma/degree (undergraduate education level) who scored high on emotional intelligence also had significantly higher scores than the participants with an honours/master's/PhD degree (post-graduate education level) on career satisfaction.



Notes: Low education level (dummy coded 0: certificate/diploma/degree); high education level (dummy coded 1: honours/master's/PhD)

Figure 6.14: Interaction between emotional intelligence, education level and career satisfaction

The results provided some supportive evidence for research hypothesis H6 in terms of race and marital status, number of children, job level and education level. The biographical variables (race, marital status, number of children, job level and education level) significantly moderated the relationship between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, perceived organisational support) and the career satisfaction construct.

Table 6.36 summarises the significant moderating effects of biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) between the independent psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and the dependent career satisfaction construct.

Table 6.36

Summary of the Significant Biographical Moderator Variables of the Relationship Between the Psychosocial Related Attributes and the Career Satisfaction Attribute

Psychosocial attribute (independent variable)	Moderator variable	Career satisfaction (dependent variable)	Practical effect size
Emotional intelligence	Race, job level and education level	Career satisfaction	Small to medium
Career adaptability	No significant moderating effect of biographical variables observed	Career satisfaction	
Psychosocial career preoccupations	No significant moderating effect of biographical variables observed	Career satisfaction	
Self-efficacy	Marital status, number of children and job level	Career satisfaction	Small to medium
Perceived organisational support	Race	Career satisfaction	Large
Social support	No significant moderating effect of biographical variables observed	Career satisfaction	

Preliminary analysis 5: Towards constructing a psychosocial profile for enhancing career success

As indicated in Table 6.36, the moderated regression analysis added the following elements to the empirically manifested psychosocial profile for career success that were outlined in preliminary analysis 4:

- It appears that race is a significant moderating variable to consider in the design of emotional intelligence and organisational support interventions for the career development of professional women.
- Job level is also an important moderating variable when considering interventions for enhancing participants' emotional intelligence and self-efficacy as psychological resources for enhancing their career satisfaction.

- Similarly, marital status and number of children are important moderating variables when considering interventions for increasing participants' self-efficacy beliefs to enhancing the career satisfaction of professional women.
- Education level is an important moderating variable when considering interventions for enhancing participants' emotional intelligence to increase the career satisfaction of professional women.

The biographical variables (age and total monthly income) did not act as significant moderating variables for the relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction. Furthermore, race, marital status, number of children, job level and education level did not moderate the relationship between career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and social support and career satisfaction.

The above results provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H6:

H6: There is a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (race, marital status, number of children, job level and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction.

6.4.6 Reporting of the tests for significant mean differences

ANOVA was used to test for significant differences between the means obtained on the various scale constructs by the biographical groups. The Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test was employed as post hoc test to determine the source of the significant differences between the groups.

The Tukey's HSD test is a parametric test which assumes independence within and among groups under observation. Means in the test are normally distributed and equal or constant variances (homogeneity of variance) across the observed groups (Montgomery, 2013). The Tukey's HSD test is a pairwise comparison procedure that controls the type I error rate for all differences and can be approached using confidence intervals of tests, including the Studentised range distribution (i.e. maximum value minus the minimum value) (Oehlert, 2010).

This step involved testing research hypothesis H7:

H7: Individuals' from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) will differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction.

This section reports only on the significant differences obtained from the various ANOVA analyses performed on the scale constructs.

6.4.6.1 Age differences in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational support, social support and career satisfaction

The results of the ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test for age in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational support and career satisfaction variables are reported in Table 6.37.

Table 6.37

Results of the ANOVA and Tukey's HSD Test for Age in Terms of Psychosocial Career Preoccupations, Perceived Organisational Support and Career Satisfaction

Dependent variable	Group age	N	Mean	(SD)	Mean differences	95% Confidence limits		f	df	p	Cohen's d
						Lower	Upper				
Psychosocial career preoccupations								12.37	3	.000	
	< 25 yrs	14	3.44	.95	.73	.092	1.367			.05	.77
	45-60 yrs	66	2.71	.95							++
	< 25	14	3.44	.95	1.01	.045	1.966			.05	1.06
	60 + yrs	8	2.43	.62							+++
	25-44 yrs	481	3.30	.83	.60	.311	.880			.05	.62
	45-60 yrs	66	2.71	.95							++
	25-44 yrs	481	3.30	.83	.87	.099	1.640			.05	1.05
	60+ yrs	8	2.43	.62							+++
Perceived organisational support								3.85	3	.01	
	45-60 yrs	65	5.02	1.09	.45	.058	.840			.05	.39
	25-44 yrs	476	4.57	1.15							+
Career satisfaction								4.65	3	.01	
	45-60 yrs	64	4.08	.76	.38	.048	.711			.05	.38
	25-44 yrs	476	3.70	.99							+

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$. d = Cohen's practical effect size (+ $d < .20$ (small practical effect size); ++ $d > .50 < .80$ (medium practical effect size) +++ $d > .80$ (large practical effect size))

As shown in Table 6.37, the ANOVA for age showed significant differences in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations for the age groups < 25 years and 45-60 years; < 25 years and 60 years and older; 25-44 years and 45-60 years; 25-44 years and 60 years and older ($F = 12.37$; $p \leq .001$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the younger participants (<25 to 44 years) obtained significantly higher mean scores than their older counterparts on psychosocial career preoccupations (M range = 3.30 to 3.44 versus 2.43 to 2.71; $d = \geq .77 \leq 1.06$; medium to large practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

Table 6.37 shows that the ANOVA for age showed significant differences in terms of perceived organisational support for the age groups 45-60 years and 25-44 years ($F = 3.85$; $p \leq .01$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the older participants (45-60 years) obtained significantly higher mean scores than their younger counterparts on perceived organisational support ($M = 5.02$ versus 4.57; $d = .39$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

As shown in Table 6.37, the ANOVA for age showed significant differences in terms of career satisfaction of the age groups 45-60 years and 25-44 years ($F = 4.65$; $p \leq .01$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the older participants (45-60 years) obtained significantly higher mean scores than their younger counterparts on career satisfaction ($M = 4.08$ versus 3.70; $d = .38$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

No significant differences were observed between the various age groups in terms of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy and social support. The results are therefore not reported here.

6.4.6.2 Race differences in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction

The results of the ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test for race in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction variables are reported in Table 6.38.

Table 6.38

Results of ANOVA and Tukey's HSD Test for Race in Terms of Psychosocial Career Preoccupations, Perceived Organisational and Social Support and Career Satisfaction

Dependent variable	Group Race	N	Mean	(SD)	Mean differences	95% confidence limits		F	df	p	Cohen's d
						Lower	Upper				
Psychosocial career preoccupations								25.58	3	.000	
	African	120	3.73	.71	.49	.107	.880			.05	.59
	Coloured	40	3.24	.83							++
	African	120	3.73	.71	.72	.501	.947			.05	.86
	White	366	3.01	.84							+++
	Indian	67	3.46	.89	.45	.173	.736			.05	.53
	White	366	3.01	.84							++
Perceived organisational support								4.98	3	.01	
	White	364	4.80	1.16	.38	.069	.701			.05	.34
	African	116	4.41	1.11							+
	White	364	4.80	1.16	.41	.020	.808			.05	.34
	Indian	67	4.38	1.23							+
Social support								3.02	3	.05	
	White	360	5.92	1.10	.41	.017	.794			.05	.31
	Indian	66	5.51	1.34							+
Career satisfaction								11.40	3	.000	
	White	361	3.93	.84	.38	.055	.706			.05	.34
	Indian	66	3.55	1.13							+
	White	361	3.93	.84	.54	.284	.798			.05	.50
	African	119	3.38	1.09							++
	Coloured	40	3.90	1.01	.52	.071	.959			.05	.48
	African	119	3.38	1.09							+

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$. d = Cohen's practical effect size (+ $d < .20$ (small practical effect size); ++ $d > .50 < .80$ (medium practical effect size) +++ $d > .80$ (large practical effect size))

As shown in Table 6.38, the ANOVA for race showed significant differences in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations for the race groups African and Coloureds; African and white; Indian and white ($F = 25.58$; $p \leq .001$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the African participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their Coloured, Indian and white counterparts on psychosocial career preoccupations ($M = 3.73$ versus 3.01 to 3.46; $d = \geq .53 \leq .86$; moderate to large practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

Table 6.38 shows that the ANOVA for race showed significant differences in terms of perceived organisational support for the race groups white and African; white and Indian ($F = 4.98$; $p \leq .01$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the white participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their African and Indian counterparts on perceived organisational support ($M = 4.80$ versus 4.38 to 4.41; $d = .34$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

As shown in Table 6.38, the ANOVA for race showed significant differences in terms of social support for the race groups white and Indian ($F = 3.02$; $p \leq .05$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the white participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their Indian counterparts on social support ($M = 5.92$ versus 5.51; $d = .31$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

Table 6.38 shows that the ANOVA for race showed significant differences in terms of career satisfaction of the race groups white and Indian; white and African; Coloured and African ($F = 11.40$; $p \leq .001$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the white participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their African, Coloured and Indian counterparts on career satisfaction ($M = 3.93$ versus 3.38 to 3.90; $d = \geq .34 \leq .50$; small to medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

No significant differences could be found between the various race groups in terms of their emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy. The results are therefore not reported here.

6.4.6.3 Marital status differences in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational support and support and career satisfaction

The results of the ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test for marital status in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction variables are reported in Table 6.39.

Table 6.39

Results of ANOVA and Tukey's HSD Test for Marital Status in Terms of Psychosocial Career Preoccupations, Perceived Organisational and Social Support and Career Satisfaction

Dependent variable	Group	N	Mean	(SD)	Mean differences	95% confidence limits		F	df	p	Cohen's d
	Marital status					Lower	Upper				
Psychosocial career preoccupations								7.81	3	.000	
	Single	173	3.47	.82	.33	.132	.534			.05	.38
	Married	397	3.14	.87							+
	Single	173	3.47	.82	.58	.103	1.065			.05	.67
	Divorced / Separated	24	2.89	.86							++
Perceived organisational support								5.52	3	.01	
	Divorced / Separated	23	5.18	1.30	.80	.139	1.455			.05	.62
											++
	Single	171	4.39	1.20							
	Married	394	4.73	1.12	.35	.074	.617			.05	.29
	Single	171	4.39	1.20							+
Social support								13.47	3	.000	
	Married	389	6.01	.98	.60	.340	.862			.05	.45
	Single	170	5.41	1.33							++
	Married	389	6.01	.98	.73	.115	1.34			.05	.56
	Divorced / Separated	23	5.29	1.31							++
Career satisfaction								8.70	3	.000	
	Divorced / Separated	23	4.05	.92	.60	.0529	1.153			.05	.55
											++
	Single	172	3.45	1.10							
	Married	392	3.88	.90	.43	.201	.654			.05	.39
	Single	172	3.45	1.10							+

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$. d = Cohen's practical effect size (+ $d < .20$ (small practical effect size); ++ $d > .50 < .80$ (medium practical effect size) +++ $d > .80$ (large practical effect size))

As shown in Table 6.39, the ANOVA for marital status showed significant differences in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations for the marital status groups single and married; single and divorced/separated ($F = 7.81$; $p \leq .001$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the single participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their married and divorced/separated counterparts on psychosocial career preoccupations ($M = 3.47$ versus 2.89 to 3.14; $d = \geq .38 \leq .67$; small to medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

Table 6.39 shows that the ANOVA for marital status showed significant differences in terms of perceived organisational support for the marital status groups divorced/separated and single; married and single ($F = 5.52$; $p \leq .01$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the divorced/separated participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their single and married counterparts on perceived organisational support ($M = 5.18$ versus 4.39 to 4.73; $d = \geq .29 \leq .62$; small to medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

As shown in Table 6.39, the ANOVA for marital status showed significant differences in terms of social support for the marital status groups married and single; married and divorced/separated ($F = 13.47$; $p \leq .001$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the married participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their single and divorced/separated counterparts on social support ($M = 6.01$ versus 5.29 to 5.41; $d = \geq .45 \leq .56$; medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

Table 6.39 shows that the ANOVA for marital status showed significant differences in terms of career satisfaction of the marital status groups divorced/separated and single; married and single ($F = 8.70$; $p \leq .001$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the divorced/separated participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their single and married counterparts on career satisfaction ($M = 4.05$ versus 3.45 to 3.88; $d = \geq .39 \leq .55$; small to medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

No significant differences could be found between the various marital status groups in terms of emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy. The results are therefore not reported here.

6.4.6.4 *Number of children differences in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational support, social support and career satisfaction*

Table 6.40 shows the results of the ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test for number of children in terms of perceived organisational support and career satisfaction variables.

Table 6.40

Results of ANOVA and Tukey's HSD Test for Number of Children in Terms of Perceived Organisational Support and Career Satisfaction

Dependent variable	Group number of children	N	Mean	(SD)	Mean differences	95% confidence limits		F	df	p	Cohen's d
						Lower	Upper				
Perceived organisational support								2.86	5	.05	
	2	161	4.81	1.09	.33	.002	.667			.05	.28
	0	251	4.48	1.18							+
Career satisfaction								4.35	5	.01	
	2	159	4.04	.83	.40	.076	.724			.05	.39
	1	132	3.64	1.02							+
	2	159	4.04	.83	.43	.147	.705				.43
	0	252	3.61	1.00							+

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$. d = Cohen's practical effect size (+ $d < .20$ (small practical effect size); ++ $d > .50 < .80$ (medium practical effect size) +++ $d > .80$ (large practical effect size))

Table 6.40 shows that the ANOVA for number of children showed significant differences in terms of perceived organisational support for the number of children groups (2 and 0) ($F = 2.86$; $p \leq .05$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the participants with two children obtained significantly higher mean scores than their counterparts without children on perceived organisational support ($M = 4.81$ versus 4.48 ; $d = .28$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

As shown in Table 6.40, the ANOVA for number of children showed significant differences in terms of career satisfaction for the number of children groups (2 and 1; 2 and 0) ($F = 4.35$; $p \leq .01$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the participants with two children obtained significantly higher mean scores than their counterparts with one or no children on career satisfaction ($M = 4.04$ versus 3.61 to 3.64 ; $d = \geq .39 \leq .43$; small practical effect $p \leq .05$).

No significant differences could be found between the various number of children groups in terms of their emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy and social support. The results are therefore not reported here.

6.4.6.5 Job level differences in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction

Table 6.41 shows the results of the ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test for job level in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction variables.

Table 6.41

Results of ANOVA and Tukey's HSD Test for Job Level in Terms of Psychosocial Career Preoccupations, Perceived Organisational and Social Support and Career Satisfaction

Dependent variable	Group Job level	N	Mean	(SD)	Mean differences	95% Confidence limits		f	df	p	Cohen's d
						Lower	Upper				
Psychosocial career preoccupations								12.78	5	.000	
	Employee	208	3.54	.71	.33	.083	.580			.05	.39
	Manager	163	3.21	.85							+
	Employee	208	3.54	.71	.47	.193	.740			.05	.52
	Senior manager	118	3.08	.89							++
	Employee	208	3.54	.71	.73	.377	1.082			.05	.78
	Director	58	2.81	.94							+++
	Employee	208	3.54	.71	.82	.402	1.230			.05	.92
	Executive	39	2.73	.89							+++
	Manager	163	3.21	.85	.40	.035	.761			.05	.43
	Director	58	2.81	.94							+
	Manager	163	3.21	.85	.48	.061	.908			.05	.54
	Executive	39	2.73	.89							++
Perceived organisational support								15.75	5	.000	
	Executive	38	5.40	1.08	.90	.332	1.46			.05	.81
	Manager	162	4.50	1.11							+++
	Executive	38	5.40	1.08	1.15	.599	1.704			.05	1.02
	Employee	207	4.25	1.13							+++
	Director	57	5.14	.97	.63	.153	1.117			.05	.57
	Manager	162	4.50	1.11							++

Dependent variable	Group Job level	N	Mean	(SD)	Mean differences	95% Confidence limits		f	df	p	Cohen's d
						Lower	Upper				
	Director	57	5.14	.97	.89	.422	1.358			.05	.79
	Employee	207	4.25	1.13							+++
	Senior manager	116	5.05	1.10	.55	.172	.933			.05	.50 ++
	Manager	162	4.50	1.11							
	Senior manager	116	5.05	1.10	.81	.446	1.171			.05	.72 ++
	Employee	207	4.25	1.13							
Social support								2.46	5	.05	
	Director	54	6.01	.92	.74	.056	1.424			.05	.50
	Executive	38	5.27	1.47							++
	Manager	160	5.88	1.08	.61	.028	1.194				.41
	Executive	38	5.27	1.47							++
Career satisfaction								18.11	5	.000	
	Executive	38	4.35	.70	.66	.184	1.128			.05	.66
	Manager	162	3.69	1.00							++
	Executive	38	4.35	.70	.98	.522	1.45			.05	.95
	Employee	207	3.36	1.03							+++
	Director	55	4.27	.72	.57	.166	0.983			.05	.57
	Manager	162	3.69	1.00							++
	Director	55	4.27	.72	.90	.505	1.299			.05	.87
	Employee	207	3.36	1.03							+++
	Senior manager	117	4.09	.73	.40	.082	.717			.05	.40 +
	Manager	162	3.69	1.00							

Dependent variable	Group Job level	N	Mean	(SD)	Mean differences	95% Confidence limits		<i>f</i>	df	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	Senior- manager	117	4.09	.73	.73	.424	1.030			.05	.71 ++
	Employee	207	3.36	1.03							
	Manager	162	3.69	1.00	.33	.053	0.602			.05	.32
	Employee	207	3.36	1.03							+

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$. *d* = Cohen's practical effect size (+ $d < .20$ (small practical effect size); ++ $d > .50 < .80$ (medium practical effect size) +++ $d > .80$ (large practical effect size))

As shown in Table 6.41, the ANOVA for job level showed significant differences in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations for the job level groups employee and manager; employee and senior manager; employee and director; employee and executive; manager and director; manager and executive ($F = 12.78$; $p \leq .001$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that employee participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their managerial-level counterparts on psychosocial career preoccupations ($M = 3.54$ versus 2.73 to 3.21; $d = .\geq .39 \leq .92$; small to large practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

Table 6.41 shows that the ANOVA for job level showed significant differences in terms of perceived organisational support for the job level groups executive and manager; executive and employee; director and manager; director and employee; senior manager and manager; senior manager and employee ($F = 15.75$; $p \leq .001$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the executive participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their employee/manager/senior manager/director counterparts on perceived organisational support ($M = 5.40$ versus 4.25 to 5.14; $d = \geq .50 \leq 1.01$; medium to large practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

As shown in Table 6.41, the ANOVA for job level showed significant differences in terms of social support for the job level groups director and executive; manager and executive ($F = 2.46$; $p \leq .05$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the director participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their manager and executive counterparts on social support ($M = 6.01$ versus 5.27 to 5.88; $d = \geq .41 \leq .50$; small to medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

Table 6.41 shows that the ANOVA for job level showed significant differences in terms of career satisfaction of the job level groups executive and manager; executive and employee; director and manager; director and employee; senior manager and manager; senior manager and employee; manager and employee ($F = 18.11$; $p \leq .001$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the executive participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their employee/manager/senior manager/director counterparts on career satisfaction ($M = 4.35$ versus 3.36 to 4.27; $d = \geq .32 \leq .95$; small to large practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

No significant differences could be found between the various job level groups in terms of their emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy. The results are therefore not reported here.

6.4.6.6 *Total monthly income differences in terms of career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction*

The results in Table 6.42 show the ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test for total monthly income in terms of the career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational support and career satisfaction variables.

Table 6.42

Results of ANOVA and Tukey's HSD Test for Total Monthly Income in Terms of Career Adaptability, Psychosocial Career Preoccupations, Self-Efficacy, Perceived Organisational Support and Career Satisfaction

Dependent variable	Group	N	Mean	(SD)	Mean differences	95% confidence limits		F	df	p	Cohen's d
	Total monthly income					Lower	Upper				
Career adaptability								2.22	5	.05	
	Less than R15 000	27	4.16	.51	.42	.0175	.816			.05	.58
	R20 000–R29 999	81	3.75	.72							++
Psychosocial career preoccupations								6.44	5	.000	
	R15 000–R19 999	26	3.74	.85	.64	.104	1.169			.05	.74
	R40 000–R49 999	104	3.10	.86							++
	R15 000–R19 999	26	3.74	.85	.67	.172	1.176			.05	.73
	R50 000 and over	232	3.06	.92							++
	R20 000–R29 999	81	3.44	.78	.38	.067	.694			.05	.41
	R50 000 and over	232	3.06	.92							+
	R30 000–R39 999	124	3.36	.72	.30	.029	.569			.05	.33
	R50 000 and over	232	3.06	.92							+
Self-efficacy								2.39	5	.05	
	Less than R15 000	27	4.69	.31	.38	.029	.727			.05	.59
	R20 000–R29 999	81	4.32	.64							++
Perceived organisational support								4.28	5	.01	
	R50 000 and over	229	4.84	1.11	.88	.212	1.539			.05	.78
	Less than R15 000	27	3.97	1.13							++
	R40 000–R49 999	104	4.77	1.11	.80	.100	1.508			.05	.71
	Less than R15 000	27	3.97	1.13							++

Dependent variable	Group	N	Mean	(SD)	Mean differences	95% confidence limits		F	df	p	Cohen's d
	Total monthly income					Lower	Upper				
Career satisfaction								11.02	5	.000	
Career satisfaction	R50 000 and over	229	4.04	.83	.39	.093	.689			.05	.41
	R30 000–R39 999	123	3.65	.94							+
	R50 000 and over	229	4.04	.83	.63	.287	.976			.05	.64
	R20 000–R29 999	81	3.41	.98							++
	R50 000 and over	229	4.04	.83	.73	.169	1.290			.05	.61
	R15 000–R19 999	25	3.31	1.19							+++
	R50 000 and over	229	4.04	.83	.96	.414	1.515			.05	.92
	Less than R15 000	26	3.08	1.04							+++
	R40 000–R49 999	103	3.86	.98	.45	.058	.849			.05	.46
	R20 000–R29 999	81	3.41	.98							+
	R40 000–R49 999	103	3.86	.98	.79	.202	1.371			.05	.76
	Less than R15 000	26	3.08	1.04							++

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$. d = Cohen's practical effect size (+ $d < .20$ (small practical effect size); ++ $d > .50 < .80$ (medium practical effect size) +++ $d > .80$ (large practical effect size))

Table 6.42 shows that the ANOVA for total monthly income showed significant differences in terms of career adaptability for the total monthly income groups less than R15 000 and R20 000–R29 999 ($F = 2.22$; $p \leq .05$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the participants earning less than R15 000 obtained significantly higher mean scores than their counterparts earning R20 000–R29 999 on career adaptability ($M = 4.16$ versus 3.75; $d = .58$; medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

As shown in Table 6.42, the ANOVA for total monthly income showed significant differences in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations for the total monthly income groups (R15 000–R19 999 and R40 000–R49 999; R15 000–R19 999 and R50 000 and over; R20 000–R29 999 and R50 000 and over; R30 000–R39 999 and R50 000 and over) ($F = 6.44$; $p \leq .001$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the participants earning R15 000–R19 999 obtained significantly higher mean scores than their counterparts earning between R20 000 and R50 000 on psychosocial career preoccupations ($M = 3.74$ versus 3.06 to 3.44; $d = \geq .33 \leq .74$ small to medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

As shown in Table 6.42, the ANOVA for total monthly income showed significant differences in terms of self-efficacy for the total monthly income groups less than R15 000 and R20 000–R29 999 ($F = 2.39$; $p \leq .05$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the participants earning less than R15 000 obtained significantly higher mean scores than their counterparts earning R20 000 to R29 999 on self-efficacy ($M = 4.69$ versus 4.32; $d = .59$; medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

Table 6.42 shows that the ANOVA for total monthly income showed significant differences in terms of perceived organisational support for the total monthly income groups R50 000 and over and Less than R15 000; R40 000–R49 999 and Less than R15 000 ($F = 4.28$; $p \leq .01$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the participants earning R50 000 and over obtained significantly higher mean scores than their counterparts earning less than R15 000 and R40 000 to R49 999 on perceived organisational support ($M = 4.84$ versus 3.97 to 4.77; $d = \geq .71 \leq .78$; medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

Table 6.42 shows that the ANOVA for total monthly income showed significant differences in terms of career satisfaction of the total monthly income groups R50 000 and over and R30 000–R39 999; R50 000 and over and R20 000–R29 999; R50 000 and over and R15 000–R19 999; R50 000 and over and less than R15 000; R40 000–R49 999 and R20 000–R29 999; R40 000–R49 999 and less than R15 000 ($F = 11.02$; $p \leq .001$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the participants earning R50 000 and over obtained significantly

higher mean scores than their counterparts earning less than R15 000 and between R15 000 and R49 999 on career satisfaction ($M = 4.04$ versus 3.08 to 3.86; $d = \geq .41 \leq .92$; small to large practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

No significant differences could be found between the various monthly income groups in terms of their emotional intelligence and social support. The results are therefore not reported here.

6.4.6.7 Education level differences in terms of emotional intelligence, psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational support and career satisfaction

The results in Table 6.43 shows the ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test for education level in terms of emotional intelligence, psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational support and career satisfaction variables.

Table 6.43

Results of ANOVA and Tukey's HSD Test for Education Level in Terms of Emotional Intelligence, Psychosocial Career Preoccupations, Perceived Organisational Support and Career Satisfaction

Dependent variable	Group	N	Mean	(SD)	Mean differences	95% Confidence limits		f	df	p	Cohen's d
	Education level					Lower	Upper				
Emotional intelligence								3.03	4	.05	
	Certificate/diploma	45	4.12	.29	.18	.011	.367			.05	.43
	Honours	339	3.94	.42							+
	Certificate/diploma	45	4.12	.29	.21	.008	.411				.51
	Master's	98	3.91	.46							++
Psychosocial career preoccupations								5.64	4	.000	
	Certificate/diploma	45	3.62	.92	.48	.107	.852			.05	.52
	Honours	333	3.14	.87							++
	Certificate/diploma	45	3.62	.92	.50	.074	.920			.05	.54
	Masters	98	3.12	.81							++
	Degree	113	3.45	.83	.31	.057	.568			.05	.36
	Honours	333	3.14	.87							+
	Degree	113	3.45	.83	.33	.005	.654			.05	.40
	Master's	98	3.12	.81							+
Perceived organisational support								4.57	4	.01	
	Master's	98	4.79	1.26	.50	.067	.935			.05	.40
	Degree	112	4.29	1.12							+
	Honours	329	4.73	1.13	.44	.093	.779			.05	.39
	Degree	112	4.29	1.12							+
Career satisfaction								5.57	4	.01	
	Master's	98	3.97	.91	.57	.205	.934			.05	.52
	Degree	112	3.40	1.09							++
	Honours	327	3.82	.94	.42	.127	.704			.05	.39
	Degree	112	3.40	1.09							+

Notes: N = 606. *** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$. d = Cohen's practical effect size (+ $d < .20$ (small practical effect size); ++ $d > .50 < .80$ (medium practical effect size) +++ $d > .80$ (large practical effect size))

Table 6.43 shows that the ANOVA for education showed significant differences in terms of emotional intelligence for the education level groups certificate/diploma and honours; certificate/diploma and master's ($F = 3.03$; $p \leq .05$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the certificate/diploma participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their honours/master's counterparts on the emotional intelligence ($M = 4.12$ versus 3.91 to 3.94; $d = \geq .43 \leq .51$; small to medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

As shown in Table 6.43, the ANOVA for education showed significant differences in terms of psychosocial career preoccupations for the education level groups certificate/diploma and honours; certificate/diploma and master's; degree and honours; degree and master's ($F = 5.64$; $p \leq .001$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the certificate/diploma participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their degree/honours/master's counterparts on psychosocial career preoccupations ($M = 3.62$ versus 3.12 to 3.45; $d = \geq .36 \leq .54$; small to medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

Table 6.43 shows that the ANOVA for education showed significant differences in terms of perceived organisational support for the education level groups master's and degree; honours and degree ($F = 4.57$; $p \leq .01$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the masters participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their degree/honours counterparts on perceived organisational support ($M = 4.79$ versus 4.29 to 4.73; $d = \geq .39 \leq .40$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

As shown in Table 6.43, the ANOVA for education showed significant differences in terms of career satisfaction of the education level groups master's and degree; honours and degree ($F = 5.57$; $p \leq .01$). The Tukey's HSD pairwise comparison test revealed that the master's participants obtained significantly higher mean scores than their degree/honours counterparts on career satisfaction ($M = 3.97$ versus 3.40 to 3.82; $d = \geq .39 \leq .52$; small to medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

No significant differences could be found between the various education level groups in terms of their career adaptability, self-efficacy and social support. The results are therefore not reported here.

Conclusions:

As illustrated in Figure 6.15:

- Emotional intelligence levels only differed significantly in relation to education level.

- Career adaptability levels only differed significantly in relation to total monthly income.
- Psychosocial career preoccupations levels differed significantly in relation to age, race, marital status, job level, total monthly income and education level.
- Self-efficacy levels only differed significantly in relation to total monthly income.
- Perceived organisational support levels differed significantly in relation to all biographical variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level).
- Social support levels differed significantly in relation to race, marital status and job levels.
- Lastly, career satisfaction levels differed significantly in relation to all biographical variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level).

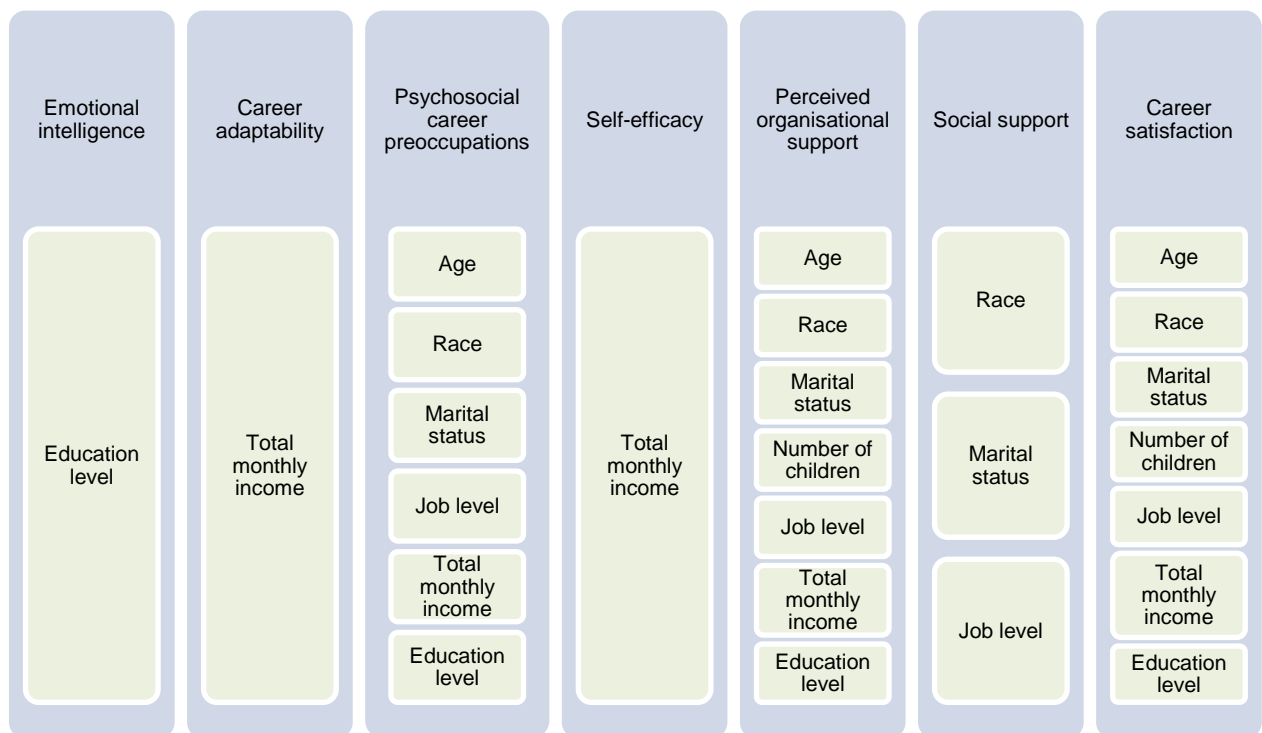


Figure 6.15: Summary of significant differences between psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction in relation to biographical variables

Table 6.44 provides an overview of the main sources of the observed differences between the biographical variables.

Table 6.44

Summary Overview of the Source of Significant Differences in the Biographical Groups on Emotional Intelligence, Career Adaptability, Psychosocial Career Preoccupations and Self-efficacy, Perceived Organisational and Social Support and Career Satisfaction

Variable	Source of difference	Highest mean ranking	Lowest mean ranking
Emotional intelligence (psychosocial attribute)	Education level	Certificate/diploma	Master's
Career adaptability (psychosocial attribute)	Total monthly income	Less than R15 000	R20 000–R29 999
Psychosocial career preoccupations (psychosocial attribute)	Age	<25 years	60+ years
	Race	African	White
	Marital status	Single	Divorced/separated
	Job level	Employee	Executive
	Total monthly income	Less than R15 000	R50 000 and over
	Education level	Certificate/diploma	Master's
Self-efficacy (psychosocial attribute)	Total monthly income	Less than R15 000	R20 000–R29 999
Perceived organisational support (psychosocial attribute)	Age	45–60 years	25–44 years
	Race	White	Indians
	Marital status	Divorced/separated	Single
	Number of children	2	0
	Job level	Executives	Employees
	Total monthly income	R50 000 and over	Less than R15 000
	Education level	Master's	Degree
Social support (psychosocial attribute)	Race	White	Indian
	Marital status	Married	Divorced/separated
	Job level	Director	Executives
Career satisfaction (outcome)	Age	45–60 years	25–44 years
	Race	White	African
	Marital status	Divorced/separated	Single
	Number of children	2	0
	Job level	Executive	Employee
	Total monthly income	R50 000 and over	Less than R15 000
	Education level	Master's	Degree

The results provided sufficient evidence to support research hypothesis H7:

H7: Individuals' from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differed significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction.

Preliminary analysis 6: Towards constructing a psychosocial profile for enhancing career success

Building on preliminary analysis 5 and as indicated in Table 6.44 and Figure 6.15, the tests for significant mean differences highlighted important differences between the biographical groups regarding the core construct variables. Reflecting on the core elements of the psychosocial profile that emerged from preliminary analysis 5, the following biographical differences pertaining to the core construct variables of the psychosocial profile should be considered when developing interventions to enhance the career satisfaction of professional women:

- Age, race and job level significant differences pertaining to psychosocial career preoccupations were observed, which were small to large in practical effect size. Marital status, total monthly income and education level significant differences were also observed (small to medium in practical effect size).
- Age, race and job level significant differences pertaining to POS were observed, which were small to large in practical effect size. Marital status, number of children, total monthly income and education level significant differences were also observed (small to medium in practical effect size).
- Race, job level and total monthly income significant differences pertaining to career satisfaction were observed, which were small to large in practical effect size. Marital status, number of children and education level significant differences were also observed (small to medium in practical effect size).
- Education level significant differences pertaining to emotional intelligence were observed (small to medium in practical effect size).

- Marital status significant differences pertaining to social support were observed (small to medium in practical effect size).

Additional biographical differences that may potentially influence the career success and satisfaction of professional women, although not indicated as significant predictors and moderators, also emerged and are as follows:

- Total monthly income significant differences pertaining to career adaptability were observed (medium in practical effect size).
- Total monthly income significant differences pertaining to self-efficacy were observed (medium in practical effect size).
- Race and job level significant differences pertaining to social support were observed (small to medium in practical effect size).

Therefore, career counsellors, HR practitioners and organisational psychologists should consider biographical differences (age, race and job level) as pertaining to the core construct variables of the psychosocial profile when developing interventions for the career development and satisfaction of professional women in order to increase perceptions of career success.

6.5 INTEGRATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

The primary objective of this study was to explore the relationship between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction in order to establish the elements of the psychosocial profile that manifests from the observed relationship among professional women. The secondary objective was to determine whether individuals from different biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education levels) differed significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction.

Overall, the results provided sufficient supportive evidence for the central research hypothesis (see section 1.3.1). The core elements that manifested in terms of the psychosocial profile for the career success of professional women are discussed in the next section.

6.5.1 Biographical profile

The main sample characteristics are illustrated in Figure 6.16. The biographical profile reflected mainly white females, and the majority of participants were between the ages of 25 and 44 years (*M* age = 35 years). Based on the life stage theory of Super (1990), the findings suggest that participants may have been in their early adulthood (establishment, security and advancement career stage) upon completion of their postgraduate qualification. The findings by Coetzee (2016) indicate that the typical career preoccupations of this age group relate to vocational development tasks of career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment. The sample of participants was predominantly married and skewed towards the category 'employees with children'. Researchers found that marital status and number of children potentially affect the career development and satisfaction of women, especially when their career is interrupted by child bearing (Doubell & Struwig, 2014; Evers & Sieverding, 2013; Punnett et al., 2009).

The present research findings highlight the relevance of the kaleidoscope career model (KCM) (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006) concerning the unique career development needs of women. The KCM provides three central parameters or needs (i.e., authenticity, balance and challenge) that are always present and interact, but take on different levels of importance based on the immediate personal and career development needs in the women's lives at a certain point in time (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). Based on the KCM, the results imply that the participants' need for career advancement and balancing the multiple demands (child care, work and career) are increasingly important during the establishment career stage (Shaw & Leberman, 2015).

The sample predominantly had a postgraduate level qualification, which can be expected in the accounting and engineering professions, as employees are expected to have these qualifications at entry level. The majority of participants were permanently employed and working three to fifteen years in their current career, which should perhaps be interpreted in view of the time invested in completion of post-graduate studies and internships required to write board examinations in order to practise in the chartered accounting and engineering professions in the South African context. Overall, the sample participants occupied managerial-level positions in their organisations and earned a total monthly income between R30 000 and R50 000 and over, which could perhaps be interpreted as high objective career success.

Black (African, Coloured and Indian) women seemed to be under-represented. This will be taken into account during the interpretation phase and when considering the limitations of the study.

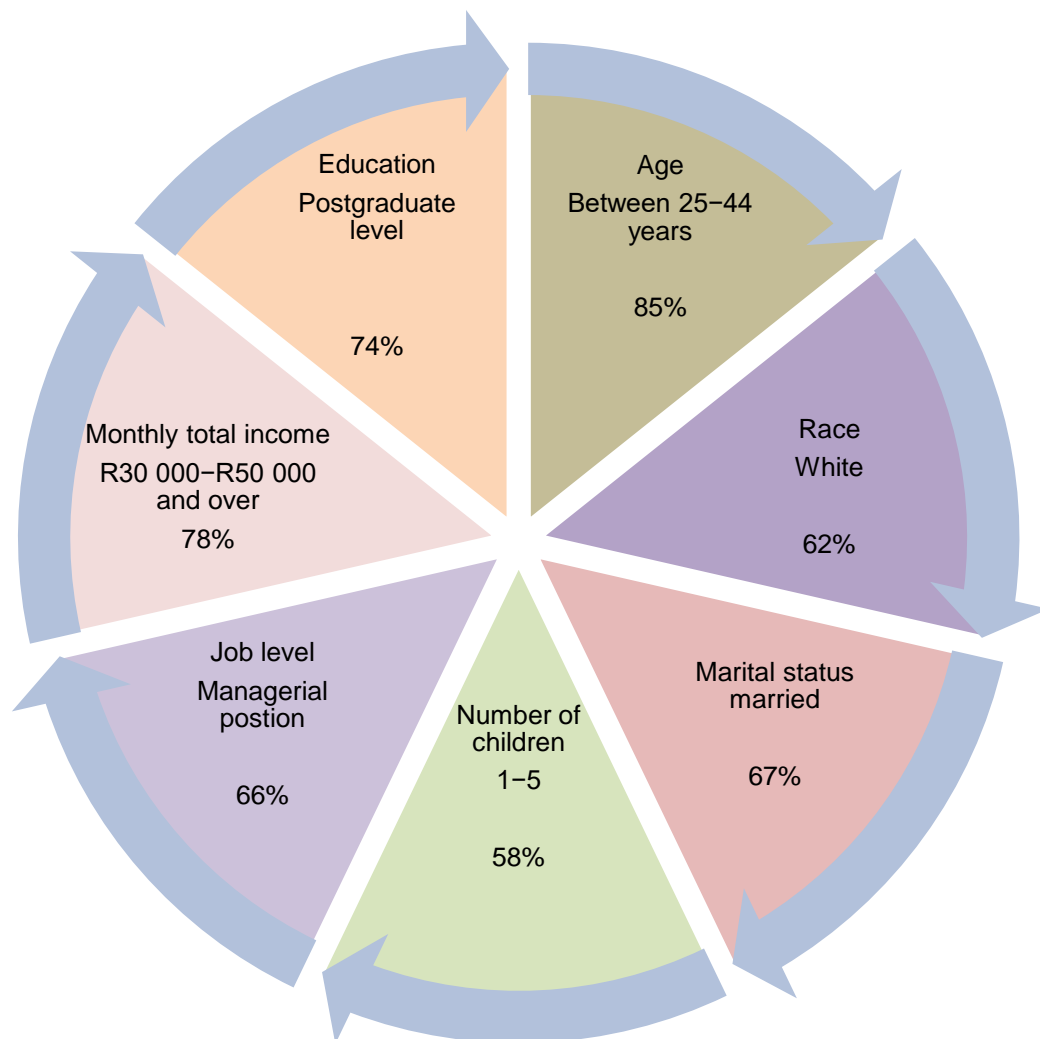


Figure 6.16: The main characteristics of the sample profile

6.5.2 Descriptive statistics: Interpretation of the results (mean scores)

Tables 6.11 to 6.17 and Figure 6.1 are relevant to this section. In this section, the mean scores for the psychosocial profile and the career satisfaction of participants are interpreted and discussed.

6.5.2.1 Psychosocial profile: Emotional intelligence

Table 6.11 and Figure 6.1 are relevant to this section. The psychosocial profile revealed that the participants showed a high level of emotional intelligence; in particular, they appeared to

be aware of and able to manage their own and others' emotions as well as utilise their emotions. The results imply that, at the time of this research, participants tended to understand and express their own emotions, recognise emotions in others, and regulate and use emotions as a basis for adaptive behaviours (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

According to Matthews et al. (2012), highly emotionally intelligent people tend to perceive themselves as more socially competent, they are likely to have better-quality personal relationships and are also viewed by others as more interpersonally sensitive than those low in emotional intelligence. The results imply that emotionally and socially intelligent individuals should be able to manage social, personal and environmental changes successfully by coping realistically and flexibly with the immediate situation, solving problems and making decisions (Bar-On, 2006). Emotional intelligence, as a psychosocial resource for career development, improves understanding of one's own emotions or the emotions of others to engage in emotionally and socially intelligent behaviours that facilitate career decision-making, which in turn, promotes career advancement (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011).

Participants showed somewhat moderate levels of perceptions of emotion, suggesting that they might feel relatively less capable of identifying emotions in the physical state (such as bodily expression of others) and discriminate between honest and emotional expression in others accurately (Brackett et al., 2011). The results imply that for women in particular, low perceptions of emotions can negatively affect promotion to leadership positions and career advancement (Andrews, 2016).

6.5.2.2 *Psychosocial profile: Career adaptability*

Table 6.12 and Figure 6.1 are relevant to this section. The psychosocial profile indicated that the participants showed moderate to high levels of career adaptability. According to Hall and Chandler (2005), individuals with high career adaptability may have the capacity to engage proactively in the process of goal setting, initiating effort and achieving psychological success. In particular, participants demonstrated relatively high levels of confidence and control. The results imply that, at the time of the study, participants had relatively high confidence to realise their career goals and successfully solve problems and overcome obstacles (Savickas, 1997; Zacher, 2014). In addition, participants seemed to be in control of trying to prepare for their vocational future. This implies that participants have demonstrated adapt-abilities resources to help form strategies that they use to solve everyday life challenges and manage various life situations and work roles (Maggiori et al., 2013; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

Participants showed somewhat moderate levels of career concern and curiosity. This implies that, at the time of the research, participants might have felt that their career development goals were progressing as planned, and that they could have been using the available resources and engaging in behaviours necessary for their career development (Taber & Blankemeyer, 2015).

6.5.2.3 *Psychosocial profile: Psychosocial career preoccupations*

Table 6.13 and Figure 6.1 are relevant to this section. The psychosocial profile indicated that the participants showed moderately high to low levels of career preoccupations. More specifically, high levels of career establishment preoccupations imply that, at the time of this study, participants might have been concerned or not satisfied with their careers in terms of fitting in and getting established in a career and moving on to new career development opportunities (Coetzee, 2015; 2016). This is in line with the low curiosity and high confidence (career adaptability). Low levels of career adaptation preoccupations may indicate that participants are not concerned about adapting to change or upskilling since their interests and talents fit with opportunities in the employment market. In line with Super's (1990) establishment career/life stage, participants may be more concerned about fitting in and advancing within the current organisation (Coetzee, 2017).

Participants' moderate levels of work/life adjustment preoccupations might have implied career preoccupations about settling down in their job, reducing their workload and achieving greater harmony between their work and personal life (Coetzee, 2015; 2016). This is congruent with a study by Cabrera (2009), which found that women often want to obtain balance between their work and non-work lives and were predominately concerned about the issue of balance, often adjusting their career ambitions to obtain a more flexible work schedule.

6.5.2.4 *Psychosocial profile: Self-efficacy*

Table 6.14 and Figure 6.1 are relevant to this section. The psychosocial profile indicated that the participants showed an overall degree of high levels of self-efficacy. Individuals with high levels of self-efficacy experience psychological success, they convey confidence in difficult situations, and approach difficult tasks as challenges to be conquered rather than as threats to be avoided (Behjat & Chowdhury, 2012; Dogan et al., 2013). This is in line with high levels of participants' career confidence to pursue ambitions and realise career goals (see section 6.5.2.2). The role of self-efficacy, as a psychological resource in career development, implies that participants may have had relatively strong beliefs in their ability to engage in specific tasks

to completion, they may have had insight into their career development, and thus may have been confident to reach personal career goals and aspirations (Bandura, 2000; Lunenburg, 2011).

6.5.2.5 *Psychosocial profile: Perceived organisational support (POS)*

Table 6.15 and Figure 6.1 are relevant to this section. Participants' mean scores were just above mid-range on POS. The results implied that participants viewed their organisations as valuing their contributions, caring about their well-being and being supportive of their career development activities (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). According to Kurtessis et al. (2015), employees who perceive their organisations as supportive should engage in job-related activities that increase work and organisational performance. Chen (2011) also suggests that employees who experience their organisations as supportive are likely to be satisfied with their careers, are likely to remain in the organisation and should strive towards achieving the goals of the organisation. Although POS, as a social resource, could be improved, organisations need to have a culture that recognises the unique career development needs of women by providing sufficient support to effectively balance work, career and family demands (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008).

6.5.2.6 *Psychosocial profile: Social support*

Table 6.16 and Figure 6.1 are relevant to this section. Participants' mean scores were high on social support. The results implied that, at the time of this research, participants felt that they had emotional and instrumental support from their social networks (i.e., family, friends and co-workers) whom they had perceived provided support for career growth and attainment of career goals (Calvete & Connor-Smith, 2006). According to Saleem and Amin (2013), significant levels of perceived social support suggest that participants can count on their social network to provide quality assistance for career development and a sense of success. Social support, as a social resource for career development, should provide networks for relationship building and stimulation to fulfil the need for challenge and cultures that are more welcoming to and supportive of the unique career development needs of women in order to overcome barriers to success in a male-dominated industry (Shaw & Leberman, 2015).

6.5.2.7 *Psychosocial profile: Career satisfaction*

Table 6.17 and Figure 6.1 are relevant to this section. Participants' mean scores were moderate on career satisfaction. This implied that, at the time of this research, participants experienced a certain degree of satisfaction with their career, but this could be improved.

According to Karavardar (2014), career satisfaction reflects how individuals feel about their career-related roles, accomplishments and success. Srikanth and Israel (2012) suggest that career satisfaction may be attributed to the development of competencies associated with one's job that provide opportunities for career advancement.

In summary, the dominant profile for the career development and success of the participants shows psychological strengths in terms of high levels of managing own emotions (emotional intelligence), career control and confidence (career adaptability) and self-efficacy. Participants had somewhat low perceptions of emotions and career satisfaction. Areas that potentially influence career satisfaction, career establishment concerns for career development were somewhat higher and needed improvement. This can be expected, considering that the dominant age group of the participants (between age 25 and 45 years) is preoccupied with concerns for security and career advancement. In terms of social strengths, perceived organisational support was somewhat lower than social support aspects. Hence, HR programmes that are supportive and match the unique career development needs of women should be considered to enhance career satisfaction.

6.5.3 Empirical research aim 1: Interpretation of the correlation results

Research aim 1 and Tables 6.18 to 6.21 are relevant to this section.

To investigate empirically the nature of the statistical interrelationship between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context.

6.5.3.1 *Relationship between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy and perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction*

Tables 6.18 to 6.20 are of relevance to this section. Overall, the results revealed that the psychosocial attributes were positively or negatively associated with career satisfaction.

A positive significant relationship was evident between emotional intelligence (perception of emotions, managing own emotions and managing others' emotions) and career satisfaction. Positive links imply that participants who were adept at understanding and interpreting others' emotions and exercise emotional and intellectual growth are more likely to experience satisfaction with their careers. These findings are in line with those of Zainal et al. (2011), which indicated that, to achieve career satisfaction, employees were concerned about others' emotional appraisal and regulation of emotions. Emotionally intelligent individuals could benefit from empathic understanding of others by adjusting their emotions and behaviour to promote career progression and achieve performance goals (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011). The research findings of Matthews et al. (2012) revealed that emotionally intelligent individuals found both work and relationships with other employees rewarding and satisfying. However, in the present study, there were no relationships evident between the emotional intelligence construct, utilisation of emotions and overall career satisfaction.

The results revealed that career adaptability significantly and positively related to career satisfaction. This suggested that those who had high career adaptability were also likely to be satisfied with their careers. The results were congruent with research conducted by Zacher (2014a), which showed that overall career adaptability positively predicted career satisfaction and performance. In addition, the research findings of Guan et al. (2015) found that employees with a high level of career adaptability were less likely to quit their organisation due to a high level of career satisfaction.

There was a significantly negative relationship evident between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. Negative links imply that those who show readiness or motivation to adapt and engage in career developmental activities are also more likely to be satisfied with their careers. Limited research is available on the framework of psychosocial career preoccupations as proposed by Coetzee (2015). Research provided evidence that career adaptation preoccupations (expectations about one's career development and success and sustainable employability) could largely be attributed to self-efficacious beliefs about one's social capital and goal-directedness (Coetzee, 2017).

The findings revealed that the overall self-efficacy construct significantly and positively related to career satisfaction. The participants who seemed to have strong efficacy beliefs to engage in career development activities and accomplish career goals, in turn, appeared satisfied with their careers. A possible explanation could be that participants who believed that they were able to perform the actions necessary to manage difficult or new tasks and cope with the difficulties associated with demanding circumstances, were able to achieve desired career goals and satisfaction with careers. This was in line with the research by Ballout (2009) who found that individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs set higher career goals, put in extra effort and pursued career strategies that led to the attainment of goals (Ballout, 2009).

Further, the results of the present study revealed that overall perceived organisational support was significantly and positively related to career satisfaction. This implied that participants who felt that their organisations valued their contributions and supported them to develop their own careers were also more likely to be satisfied with their careers. These findings were consistent with the research by Barnett and Bradley (2007) who found that organisational support was positively related to career satisfaction.

Lastly, a significant and positive relationship was evident between social support (family, friends and significant others) and career satisfaction. Positive links implied that participants who seemed to perceive that their family, friends or peers were supportive of their careers were also more likely to be satisfied with their careers. These results are supported by the findings of Lirio et al. (2007) who have found social support from family members contributes to career success. Similarly, Jepson (2010) found that women with high levels of social support tended to experience success in their careers.

Overall, the results of the present study revealed that psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) were positively or negatively associated with career satisfaction.

6.5.3.2 Critical reflection

In terms of significant findings, positive relationships were observed between the psychosocial-related attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction. The results also indicated that a negative relationship was observed between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. These significant relationships suggest when organisations apply strategies to

improve women's psychosocial resources, it is likely that their career satisfaction will increase. In addition, career development discussions could explore concerns about career development needs, equitable access to challenging and meaningful and work-life balance to enhance career satisfaction.

In the present study, psychological resources play an important role in negotiating career development stages, and are enablers to successfully manage work and non-work demands. Strategies to improve psychological resources are likely to enhance career development skills and the career satisfaction of professional women. Individuals who possess high psychological and social resources are likely to cope with work and non-work demands, realise personal growth, and development and experience satisfaction with their careers.

6.5.3.3 *Counter-intuitive findings*

There was no significant relationship evident between the emotional intelligence sub-dimension 'utilisation of emotions' and career satisfaction. Notwithstanding the amount of research on emotional intelligence in the career development context, the relationship between emotional intelligence and career satisfaction is limited (Akpochofo, 2011; Prentice & King, 2013).

6.5.4 **Research aim 2: Interpretation of the standard multiple linear regression results**

Tables 6.22 and 6.23 are relevant to this section.

Research aim 2 was to assess whether individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predicted their psychosocial attribute constructs and career satisfaction.

Overall, the results revealed that the biographical variables (age, race, marital status, job level, and total monthly income) significantly positively and negatively related to the psychosocial attributes (psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support) and the career satisfaction construct, with the exception of the emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy constructs, where no significant relationships could be found. This section discusses the biographical variables (age, race, marital status, job level and total monthly income) that significantly predicted the psychosocial attributes (psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction.

6.5.4.1 Age

The results showed that age significantly predicted participants' psychosocial career preoccupations and perceived organisational and social support. Women 45 years and older experienced lower career preoccupations compared to younger women. Based on Super's (1990) career stage model, age was used to meaningfully distinguish the career stages and career preoccupations of women. Age-related life/career stages reflect distinct differences in career preoccupations or concerns and career development tasks that are could be influenced by social factors in the individual's environment (Coetzee, 2014b; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). Coetzee (2008) found that adults in the early adulthood life stage had a higher need for further growth and development than adults in the midlife and late-life stages. Ismail et al. (2005) found that high-flyer women academics passed through specific and predictable career developmental life stages and were promoted to the level of professor during the establishment and maintenance stages. The present findings imply that younger women in their early adulthood career life stage are likely to have career preoccupations or concerns for developing work competencies and a need for further learning opportunities and growth.

Furthermore, the present findings indicated that age had an effect on how participants perceived organisational support, with women 44 years or younger indicating lower perceived organisational support than older women (45 years and older). The present findings are congruent with a study by Khurshid and Anjum (2012), which found that younger respondents expressed lower perceived organisational support than older respondents. Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009) found that respondents who felt that their organisation was providing its older managerial and professional employees with opportunities to upgrade their skills and to acquire new skills perceived their organisation as more supportive than respondents whose organisation was not engaging in these training and development practices. The results imply that younger women (25–44 years) may have felt that their organisations have not been supportive of their career aspirations and do not provide career opportunities that they highly value as older women (45 years and older).

The present results further indicated that participants' level of social support was influenced by age, with women 44 years or younger indicating lower perceived social support than older women. This is in contrast with a study by Knoll and Schwarzer (2002), which found that younger women reported receiving the highest social support, while older women indicated relatively low levels of social support. The present findings imply that there may be age-related differences associated with social support networks and the level of effectiveness of social support experienced by younger women (McGuire, 2012). Schieman (2006) indicate that

occupations with a higher proportion of women should likely expose other women to workplace contexts that are conducive to forming social network ties that promote access to information about career development.

The present findings are viewed as important in contributing to the career development of women. Super's (1990) life/career stage model outlines the distinguishing attitudes, motivations and behaviours that occur in sequence over the period of people's career development, and is a useful framework for understanding women's career preoccupations at a specific point in time (Byrne, Dik & Chiaburu, 2008; Coetzee, 2015). Similarly, Sullivan and Mainiero's (2008) kaleidoscope career model (KCM) provides a framework, which creates a meaningful understanding of the intrinsic and unique needs of women to maximise their career development and advancement aimed at enhancing their career satisfaction over their career lifespan (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). Therefore, organisations should take cognisance of age in developing career development practices that are relevant to the unique needs of women, particularly in the establishment of career stage (25–44 years).

6.5.4.2 *Race*

The present findings indicated that race influenced participants' level of psychosocial career preoccupations, POS and career satisfaction. The white race group experienced low career preoccupations and higher levels of POS and career satisfaction than their black counterparts. On the basis of Bronfenbrenner's (1997) ecological model, individuals operate within a unique ecosystem (i.e., the continuing dynamic interaction between the person and the environment); thus, race groups play a role in the career development of women (Cook et al., 2002). A study by Fouad and Byars-Winston (2005) indicate that race differences do not play a major role in career aspirations and career development, but they are differences among racial groups in perceptions of related career opportunities and barriers that influence career development. Fouad and Byars-Winston (2005) suggest, although the career aspirations of individuals are similar, perceptions of the opportunities for career development differ by race. In the present study, it might be that black women were concerned about opportunities for career development compared to white women.

The results further indicated that participants' level of organisational and social support was influenced by race. The white race group had a stronger sense of POS and career satisfaction when compared to the other race groups. Research findings by Peterson et al. (2004) suggest that employees who experience racial prejudice are less likely to feel satisfied with their careers and often feel less welcomed by the organisation. A study by Faupel-Badger et al. (2017)

indicates that race groups other than the white group are associated with low satisfaction in terms of their career trajectory and career development opportunities for career growth. Supportive treatment and favourable work experiences create a supportive environment and also encourage employees to actively make use of opportunities for career development (De Vos et al., 2011).

The present findings imply that, although employment equity and affirmative action strategies have improved black employees' career development opportunities, organisations should take cognisance of race when developing career development strategies in the diverse South African context.

6.5.4.3 Marital status

The results indicated that marital status influenced participants' level of social support. Married women experienced higher levels of social support when compared to the other marital status groups. This implied that married women perceived social support for career development and advancement from their spouses and significant others compared to other marital status groups. Marital status has been cited as a significant factor that influences the career development and advancement of women (Ahmed & Carrim, 2016). A study by Oti (2013) found that spousal support was essential for career growth and that collegial support was crucial for female leadership attainment. Research findings by Ahmed and Carrim (2016) found that married women received emotional support from their husbands, which assisted in their career progression.

The research findings imply that organisations should formulate work-family strategies and policies that accommodate the unique career development needs of women regardless of whether they are married or single.

6.5.4.4 Number of children

In terms of the results, number of children did not significantly influence the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction levels of the participants. Previous research showed that, for women, the number of children was significantly and positively related to career interruptions, whereas for men, the number of children was significantly but negatively related to career interruptions (Evers & Sieverding, 2013). Similarly, having more children may possibly put a strain on people's ability to engage with work (Amdurer et al., 2014). In another study, Miles

(2013) found that women left the workforce because they could not balance family and work responsibilities.

6.5.4.5 *Job level*

The results revealed that job level influenced the levels of psychosocial career preoccupations, POS and career satisfaction. Women within the senior management job level groups (manager/senior manager/deputy director/director/CEO) had low levels of career preoccupations or concerns compared to the employee job level group. The results implied that women in senior management job level groups were less concerned about their career development, advancement, employability or work-life balance compared to the employee job level group. The employee job level group appeared to have high levels of career preoccupations. The findings could be attributed to the fact that the employee group may have recently completed their degree or postgraduate qualification, and could have concerns or a need for career growth and advancement opportunities, learning, developing and applying new knowledge and skills in the workplace.

There is limited research presented on the groundwork of psychosocial career preoccupations as proposed by Coetzee (2016). However, in a study of graduates, Coetzee (2017) found that graduates were concerned about employability, adapting to changing contexts and adjusting the fit between their career needs and/or preferences and changing environment requirements (i.e., career adaptation preoccupations).

Further, women within the senior management job level groups (manager/senior manager/deputy director/director/CEO) had higher levels POS compared to the employee job level group. The results imply that senior management job level groups experience and/or perceive that their organisations are supportive of their career development and progression, and value their contribution to the organisation. Research suggests that antecedents of perceived organisational support, namely supportive treatment and favourable work experiences create a supportive environment, and also encourage employees to actively make use of the opportunities for career development (De Vos et al., 2011; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). The employee job level group had low levels of POS compared to the senior management job level groups. This suggested that the employee job level group experienced and/or perceived that their organisations were not supportive of their career development needs or did not provide adequate career development opportunities to achieve their career aspirations.

The findings also indicate that women within the senior management job level groups (manager/senior manager/deputy director/director/CEO) have higher levels of career satisfaction compared to the employee job level group. Career satisfaction may be attributed to the development of competencies associated with one's job and opportunities for career advancement (Srikanth & Israel, 2012). Leigh, Tancredi and Kravitz (2009) observe that more mature physicians experienced high levels of career satisfaction. This implies that senior management job level groups experience satisfaction with their personal goal accomplishments, progress in meeting their goals for income and development of skill competencies in their current jobs.

The employee job level group had lower levels of career satisfaction compared to the senior management job level groups. Burke (2005) found that individuals at lower organisational levels were less satisfied with their careers than those at higher levels. This implied that the employee job level group was less satisfied with their overall career development goals, development of new skill competencies, not having sufficient knowledge in their chosen industry and not meeting goals for income.

The research findings imply that organisations should formulate and implement career development practices targeting employees and tailoring unique career development needs that provide interesting and challenging job assignments and also create opportunities for career development.

6.5.4.6 Total monthly income

The results showed that total monthly income influenced the participants' level of career satisfaction. Women who earned R50 000 and more total monthly income had higher levels of career satisfaction when compared to women earning less than R15 000 total monthly income. Bakan and Buyukbese (2013) found that participating employees with high income levels reported significantly higher levels of career satisfaction than did employees with low income levels. The present findings indicate that women who earn less than R15 000 total monthly income are less satisfied with their careers in terms of income progression and achievement of career goals. The career stage model (Super, 1990) of career progression is well acknowledged. In the view of that, as the individual progresses through the career stages, income increases in relation to increase in work experience (Young et al., 2014). Hence, in the present study, it is expected that income and career satisfaction would be positively related.

This finding could suggest that organisations should formulate and implement an objective and clear career progression map, which employees can use to track their achievement of career goals in relation to a positive income progression.

6.5.4.7 Education level

In terms of the results, education level did not significantly influence the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction levels of the participants. Previous research showed that being younger at the time of graduation positively affected career satisfaction (Amdurer et al., 2014). Amdurer et al. (2014) also found that people who were emotionally competent at the time of graduation could use some of their emotional competence to cultivate better careers, in which they were more satisfied and feel successful. A study by Zacher (2014b) showed that education level differentially predicted change over time in one or more of the four career adaptability dimensions. In relation to career preoccupations, Ismail et al. (2005) found that high-flyer women academics passed through specific and predictable career developmental life stages, and were also promoted to the level of professor during the establishment and maintenance stages.

6.5.4.8 Critical reflection

The multiple regression analysis contributed to the development of the psychosocial profile of professional women through identifying the influence of biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, job level and total monthly income) on the psychosocial-related attributes (psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction.

Organisations should therefore take cognisance of the career preoccupations or concerns of women regarding their career development (i.e., career aspirations, development opportunities, advancement and achievement of career goals), as this could have an influence on the supportive role of organisations and social network ties and satisfaction with their careers.

6.5.4.9 Counter-intuitive findings

Overall, number of children and education level did not significantly predict any of the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction. Amdurer et al. (2014), however, found that education level could influence emotional competence to cultivate better careers and

satisfaction with careers. Similarly, a study by Zacher (2014b) showed that education influenced career adaptability dimensions. In addition, Coetzee (2017) found that graduates seemed to have high levels of career adaptation preoccupations. Zhang et al. (2015) found a significant positive relationship between educational level and self-efficacy. Lastly, number of children seemed to influence the career success of professional women (Doubell & Struwig, 2014).

The biographical variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) showed no significant regression on the emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy constructs. These results are in contrast with previous research findings. For instance, Ghoreishi et al. (2014) found that emotional intelligence increased with age. In addition, results also showed that age predicted change in overall career adaptability (Zacher, 2014b). Mashhady et al. (2012) found that married teachers' self-efficacy increased over time and with years of experience. Similarly, Zhang et al. (2015) found a significant positive relationship between educational level and self-efficacy.

6.5.5 Research aim 3: Interpretation of the canonical correlation results

Tables 6.24, 6.25 and Figure 6.2 are relevant to this section.

Research aim 3: To assess whether psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), as a composite set of latent independent variables, significantly relate to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

In terms of the women's psychological resources in relation to social resources and career satisfaction, the results suggested that managing own emotions (emotional intelligence), career control (career adaptability), psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy were important in explaining women's perceptions of organisational support and satisfaction with careers. The results imply that when career preoccupations or concerns for career development are low, women should perceive their organisations as supportive of their career development, advancement and achievement of career goals, which in turn, should enhance satisfaction with careers.

Further, individuals who understand and appropriately manage their own emotions (i.e., confidence in the ability to control one's personal emotions, perseverance regardless of obstacles and motivating self to achieve career goals) make use of career development

opportunities available and should perceive that the organisations are supportive of the career development, which in turn, is likely to enhance satisfaction with careers. The results corroborate the findings by Schutte et al. (2013), which indicate that individuals manage and regulate their emotions so that they are compatible with the requirements of a situation or the desired career goal. In addition, Matthews et al. (2012) found that emotionally intelligent employees find both work and relationships with other employees rewarding and satisfying. Amdurer et al. (2014) found that emotional intelligence competencies predict career satisfaction and success.

The present results further suggested that career control explained the participants' perceived organisational support and career satisfaction. The findings imply that by taking personal responsibility to make use of career development opportunities and monitoring career development goals to completion (career control), such actions could determine as to whether participants perceive the organisation to be offering support in advancing their career goal, which in turn, could enhance their satisfaction with careers.

Further, it seemed that self-efficacy influenced the participants' perceived organisational support and career satisfaction. The results imply that individuals are likely to have the confidence to access career development opportunities with the belief that the organisation will provide supportive measures to accomplish career goals, which in turn, are likely to enhance experiences of career satisfaction. The findings support the findings of King (2004), which indicate that individuals' efficacy beliefs and the desire for control over career outcomes enable them to demonstrate career self-management behaviours, which in turn, may lead to attainment of desired career goals and satisfaction with careers.

6.5.5.1 Critical reflection

Overall, the results indicated that managing own emotions (emotional intelligence), career control (career adaptability), career preoccupations and self-efficacy contributed significantly to explaining women's experiences of POS, social support and career satisfaction. The results support previous findings, which indicate that psychosocial resources are important capacities, which play a significant role for successful adaptation in various career domains (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Dahl & Cilliers, 2012; Ohme & Zacher, 2015). The findings could also be attributed to the psychological and social resources mutual or reciprocal relationship as suggested by Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources theory (COR). The results suggest that, when the career preoccupations of women are low, the levels of emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy should increase, and women are likely to perceive the

organisation and social networks as offering support in advancing career goals, which in turn, could positively influence their career satisfaction experiences.

The findings suggest that organisations and career counsellors should be aware of the dynamic reciprocal relationship between the psychosocial resources and then develop career development interventions that women can utilise to increase their psychosocial resources with the aim to enhance their career satisfaction.

6.5.5.2 *Counter-intuitive findings*

The psychosocial-related attributes emotional intelligence (perception of emotions and utilisation of emotions) and career adaptability (career curiosity) did not significantly contribute to explaining the participants' experiences of perceived organisational support and career satisfaction. On the contrary, the findings by Karatepe and Olugbade (2017) suggested that work social support boosted career adaptability and career satisfaction. Notwithstanding the amount of research on emotional intelligence and career adaptability in the career development context, the contribution of the emotional intelligence (perception of emotions and utilisation of emotions) and career adaptability (career curiosity) construct variables to explain experiences of perceived organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 2004) and career satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990) remain unexplored.

6.5.6 **Research aim 4: Mediation effect of social attributes**

Tables 6.26 to 6.29 and Figures 6.3 to 6.6 are relevant to this section.

Research aim 4 was to investigate empirically whether the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.

The psychological attributes related significantly to career satisfaction through the social resources of POS and social support, which yielded supportive evidence for the research hypothesis that assumed that lower levels of career preoccupations and higher levels of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy, POS and social support increased experiences and/or perceptions of career satisfaction.

Multiple mediation analyses indicated that social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) mediated the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction, such that high experiences and/or perceptions of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy and low experiences and/or perceptions of psychosocial career preoccupations were positively and negatively associated with perceived organisational and social support, which in turn, were also positively associated with high levels of career satisfaction. The findings imply that social attributes may strengthen the relationship between the psychological attributes and career satisfaction, and that different sources of social attributes could function as important mechanisms in strengthening the link between positive psychological attributes and career satisfaction.

The results revealed that participants who perceived themselves to be emotionally intelligent (perception of emotions, managing own and others' emotions, and utilisation of emotions) were inclined to experience high levels of perceived organisational and social support, and in turn, were likely to be satisfied with their careers. The findings suggest that professional women with high levels of emotional intelligence (understand and express emotions and use emotions in adaptive ways) (Schutte et al., 2013) are likely to perceive their organisations as valuing their contributions and caring about their well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). These women also believe that they can count on their family and friends to provide quality assistance, such as listening, affection, offering advice or any other way that provides well-being (Lakey, 2007), which would likely increase experiences and/or perceptions of career satisfaction.

Further, the results revealed that participants with high perceptions of career adaptability (career concern, control, curiosity and confidence) were inclined to experience high levels of perceived organisational and social support, and in turn, were likely to be satisfied with their careers. The findings suggest that professional women with high levels of career adaptability (behaviours, attitudes and competencies individuals use to manage and adapt to challenges experienced and transitions relating to varying career stages) (Savickas and Porfeli., 2012) are likely to perceive their organisations as valuing their contributions and caring about their well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). These women also believe that they can count on their family and friends to provide quality assistance, such as listening, affection, offering advice or any other way that provides well-being (Lakey, 2007), which would likely partially increase experiences of career satisfaction.

The results revealed that participants who perceived and/or experienced low levels of psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment, adaptation and work/life

adjustment preoccupations) were inclined to experience high levels of perceived organisational support and in turn, were likely to be satisfied with their careers. The findings suggest that professional women with low levels of psychosocial career preoccupations (psychological and social concerns at a specific point in time) (Coetzee, 2016) are likely to perceive their organisations as valuing their contributions and caring about their well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), which would likely increase perceptions and/or experiences of career satisfaction. Limited research is available on the framework of psychosocial career preoccupations proposed by Coetzee (2015). However, research has shown that employees' career preoccupations influence their job and work-related attitudes, such as commitment and engagement (Coetzee, 2015).

The results also revealed that perceived organisational and social support strengthened the influence of self-efficacy on career satisfaction. The present findings suggest that professional women with high levels of self-efficacy (belief in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action as required to manage potential situations) (Bandura, 1995) are likely to perceive favourable treatment from the organisation, they feel obligated to help the organisation achieve its goals and objectives, and expect that increased effort on behalf of the organisation will translate into greater rewards, in this case, career satisfaction (Kurtessis et al., 2015). In addition, professional women who have participated in the study may have confidence that they can count on their family and friends to provide quality assistance, such as listening, affection, offering advice or any other way that provides well-being (Lakey, 2007), which would likely partially increase experiences of career satisfaction. A study by Spurk and Abele (2014) found that people perform at levels commensurate with their self-efficacy beliefs. In terms of that view, Day and Allen (2004) found that self-efficacy related positively to salary, subjective career success and performance effectiveness.

The findings highlight the importance of social influences on career satisfaction among professional women. Consistent with this view, a study by Pachulicz et al. (2008) found that the more support an individual perceived to receive from the organisation, the higher the reported subjective career success. Similarly, Latif and Sher (2012) found perceived organisational support to have a significant effect on career satisfaction. Ahmed and Carrim (2016) found that the emotional support received from husbands assisted the career progression of women.

6.5.6.1 *Critical reflection*

The main findings showed that the mediation analysis provided new insight into the relationship dynamics among social and psychological resources/mechanisms that contribute to career satisfaction. Furthermore, perceived organisational and social support functioned as significant mechanisms in buffering the negative effect of high career preoccupations on levels of career satisfaction, as well as strengthening the link between emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy and the career satisfaction construct. As a result, psychosocial career preoccupations or concerns about career development when significantly reduced, increased career satisfaction through perceived organisational and social support.

The findings could be attributed to the buffering effect of social resources on the relationship dynamics between psychological resources and career satisfaction as suggested by Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources theory (COR). The COR perspective suggests that social resources (perceived organisational and social support) provide a major reservoir for psychological resources (Hobfoll et al., 1990). Hence, when participants experience career development and advancement support from the organisation and social networks, their psychological resources (emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy) are strengthened and in the process could assist in enhancing participants' career satisfaction. Osca et al. (2005) indicated the buffering effect of social support on subjective job satisfaction.

The findings suggest that organisations should consider social attribute interventions (perceived organisational and social support) as core aspects for the career development practices aimed at enhancing the career satisfaction of professional women. Career counsellors may advise professional women on how to gain advantage from utilising their psychological capabilities to potentially contribute to their career development and progression aimed at enhancing their career satisfaction. In addition, career counsellors should assist professional women in exploring the magnitude of their particular career preoccupations with the aim of finding career development interventions which best suit their unique career needs.

6.5.6.2 *Counter-intuitive findings*

Social support did not mediate the relationship between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. However, previous research has revealed that there is an association between social support and career thoughts on the career planning and decision-making process (Rodriguez, 2012).

6.5.7 Research aim 5: Interpretation of the structural equation modelling results

Table 6.30 and Figure 6.7 are relevant to this section.

Research aim 5 was to assess whether the hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile has a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model as based on the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors.

The structural equation modelling (SEM) results revealed that the theoretically conceptualised psychosocial profile had a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model. The motivation for applying this approach was to validate empirically the psychosocial model that emerged from numerous statistical analyses of the interrelationship and overall relationship between the variables. A goodness-of-fit model was tested and indicated that managing own emotions (emotional intelligence), career control (career adaptability) and career establishment preoccupations (psychosocial career preoccupations) contributed most significantly to explaining career satisfaction. In particular, the model indicated that managing own emotions contributed significantly to the career satisfaction construct. Managing own emotions gives emphasis to the use of both emotional and cognitive capabilities to differentiate between varying emotions (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Schutte et al., 2013). In relation to this study, this model suggested that women who can make sense of their career experiences seemingly succeed at communicating their career goals and intentions (Amdurer et al., 2014). The results are in line with research conducted by Zainal et al. (2011) who observed that, to achieve career satisfaction, employees are concerned about emotional appraisal and regulation of emotion; in other words, employees are very much concerned about what other people think about and feel towards them.

Further, the model revealed that career control (career adaptability) contributed significantly to the career satisfaction construct of professional women. Career control refers to a sense of ownership, personal responsibility, self-discipline and persistence to exert influence on one's career development and satisfaction (Savickas and Porfeli, 2012). The results suggested that women who experienced increased career control were empowered to take personal responsibility to influence their career development and exert self-discipline and persistence to realise the career goal were more likely to be satisfied with their careers. The results also suggest that women who perceived increasing career control to cope with career developmental tasks and various work and no-work roles were more likely to be satisfied with their career advancement. Guo et al. (2014) found that individuals with a strong sense of career

adaptability tended to cope proactively with difficult environments and develop career competence to increase career development and satisfaction.

The model revealed that psychosocial career establishment preoccupations (psychosocial career preoccupations) contributed significantly to the career satisfaction construct of professional women. Career establishment preoccupations refer to concerns about economic stability and security, establishing career development opportunities and advancing in one's career (Coetzee, 2015). The results suggest that when women's establishment preoccupations or concerns for economic stability and security, career development opportunities and advancement are low, they are likely to experience career satisfaction. Coetzee (2016) found that career establishment preoccupations were associated with mastering one's environment and engaging in adaptive and change-supportive behaviours to maximise growth and competence.

Furthermore, the model revealed that self-efficacy contributed significantly to the career satisfaction of professional women. Self-efficacy refers to an individual's beliefs concerning career-related behaviours, work-related choices, performance and persistence in the implementation of those choices (Betz & Hackett, 1997). The results suggested that women who perceived high-efficacy beliefs implemented career goals, demonstrated career-related behaviours, performed and persisted to achieve desired career outcomes were likely to experience career satisfaction. Ballout (2009) found that individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs set high career goals, put in extra effort and pursued career strategies that led to the attainment of the desired career goals.

The model revealed that perceived organisational support contributed significantly to the career satisfaction of professional women. Perceived organisational support refers to employees' beliefs regarding the extent to which the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1896). Hence, organisations can influence employees' experience of career success by supporting their career development (Barnett & Bradley, 2007). The results suggested that women who perceived that the organisations supported their career development and advancement were likely to be satisfied with their careers. Pachulicz et al. (2008) found that the more support a person perceived from the organisation, the higher the reported subjective career success.

In addition, the model revealed that social support contributed significantly to the career satisfaction of professional women. Social support is defined as a helpful resource that could meet an individual's urgent needs and is provided by a support network of others, such as

family, friends, co-workers and significant others (Kostova et al., 2015). The results suggested that women who perceived their social network ties (family, friends and co-workers) supported their career development and advancement were likely to be satisfied with their careers. Lirio et al. (2007) found that high levels of social support in the form of emotional and appraisal support from family members contributed to the career success of women. Previous research suggests that new employees who become strongly embedded in social networks should adapt more successfully and are likely to be satisfied with their careers (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006).

The results were useful in determining the elements of the psychosocial profile that contributed most significantly to explaining career satisfaction. Therefore, career counselling and training may be powerful tools that organisations could utilise to boost psychosocial-related attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) to enhance career satisfaction.

6.5.7.1 Critical reflection

In this study, building on the psychosocial model that emerged from numerous statistical analyses of the interrelationship and overall relationship between the variables, the results of the SEM demonstrated that managing own emotions (emotional intelligence), career control (career adaptability), career establishment preoccupations (psychosocial career preoccupations) and self-efficacy had contributed most significantly to explaining the career satisfaction construct. The present findings indicate that, when experiences or perceptions of career establishment preoccupations are low and levels of managing own emotions, career control and self-efficacy are high, participants are likely to experience high levels of career satisfaction. Similarly, participants with high experiences or perceptions of organisational and family support would experience increased career satisfaction. Di Fabio and Kenny (2015) found that both emotional intelligence and social support were associated with a broad range of adaptive career outcomes (i.e., career choice, career development and work success. Coetzee (2017) found that career adaptation preoccupations (i.e., expectations about one's career outcomes) could mostly be ascribed to efficacy beliefs about the individual's social capital and goal-directedness.

Previous research has investigated the influence of the constructs of the psychosocial profile on career satisfaction separately (Amdurer et al., 2014; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2017; Kirkbesoglu & Ozder, 2015; Pachulicz et al., 2008; Zacher, 2014a). By examining the seven constructs in a single study, the researcher was able to demonstrate the influence of an

interaction between the psychological cognitive career self-management behavioural resources (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and social supportive resources (perceived organisational and social support) on career satisfaction (the career goal achievement). In this regard, the present study contributed new important insights about how women's career preoccupations or concerns influence their ability to use psychosocial resources in attaining career success.

In this study, the results of the SEM suggest that organisations should develop career development processes and strategies that are aligned to the unique career needs of women in order to ensure that women were satisfied with their overall career goals (i.e., professional development goals, advancement or development of new skills and accomplishments of career goals).

6.5.7.2 *Counter-intuitive findings*

The findings indicate that the overall emotional intelligence construct is not likely to significantly predict the career satisfaction of professional women. However, previous research studies revealed emotional intelligence competencies predicted career satisfaction and success (Amdurer et al., 2014; Lounsbury et al., 2003).

6.5.8 Research aim 6: Interpretation of the hierarchical moderated regression results

Tables 6.31 to 6.36 and Figures 6.8 to 6.14 are relevant to this section.

Research aim 6 was to assess empirically whether there was a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction.

The hierarchical moderated regression results also added certain biographical characteristics that assisted in the construction of the psychosocial profile of professional women.

6.5.8.1 *Race*

Race seemed to moderate the relationship between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence and POS) and career satisfaction factors significantly. Race interacted with emotional intelligence and POS in predicting or explaining the levels of career satisfaction of

women. White women who scored high on emotional intelligence also had significantly higher scores than their black counterparts on career satisfaction. Similarly, white women who scored high on perceived organisational support also had significantly higher scores than their black counterparts on career satisfaction. Smith (2000) suggest that when individuals understand their own emotions, they are likely to act appropriately, connect with other individuals emotionally and effectively interact to meet their needs and career goals. The present findings imply that perceived career development opportunities offered by the organisation to meet career goals may be influenced by race. The results are in line with Fouad and Byars-Winston (2005) that perceptions of the career opportunities to realise career aspirations were influenced by race.

6.5.8.2 Marital status and number of children

Marital status and number of children seemed to moderate the relationship between self-efficacy and career satisfaction significantly. Marital status and number of children interacted with self-efficacy in predicting or explaining the levels of career satisfaction of women. The married women who scored high on self-efficacy also had significantly higher scores on career satisfaction than did the single women. Previous research found that married teachers' self-efficacy was significantly higher than that of single teachers (Mashhady et al., 2012). It is interesting to note that women with no children who scored high on self-efficacy also had significantly higher scores on career satisfaction than the women with children. The findings suggest that marital status and number of children could influence efficacy beliefs or confidence to persist and achieve career development goals, which in turn, influences satisfaction with careers.

6.5.8.3 Job level

The variable constructs emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and job level acted as significant predictors of career satisfaction. Job level interacted with emotional intelligence in predicting or explaining the levels of career satisfaction of women. The women at managerial level who scored high on emotional intelligence also had significantly higher scores on career satisfaction than their employee counterparts. The findings imply that job level may influence the women's ability to manage own and others' emotions, which in turn, may influence satisfaction with careers. The results are in line with research by Zainal et al. (2011), which found that in order to achieve career satisfaction, managerial-level employees were concerned about others' emotional appraisal and regulation of emotions.

The results also indicated that job level seemed to moderate the relationship between self-efficacy and career satisfaction significantly. The managerial-level participants who scored high on self-efficacy also had significantly higher scores on career satisfaction than their employee counterparts. Job level may influence efficacy beliefs or confidence to pursue and achieve career development goals, which in turn, may influence satisfaction with their careers.

6.5.8.4 Education level

Education level seemed to moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and career satisfaction significantly. Education level interacted with emotional intelligence in predicting or explaining the levels of career satisfaction of women. The findings imply that education level may influence participants' adaptive emotional functioning efficaciously to deal positively with career-related challenges and motivate the self to experience satisfying careers (Schutte et al., 2013). Undergraduate participants who scored high on emotional intelligence also had significantly higher scores on career satisfaction than their counterparts at postgraduate level. This is similar to the research of Amdurer et al. (2014) who found that people who are emotionally competent at the time of graduation could use some of their emotional competence to cultivate better careers, where they are more satisfied and feel successful.

6.5.8.5 Critical reflection

The main findings indicated that the hierarchical moderated regression analysis contributed to the development of the psychosocial profile to enhance the career success of professional women through identifying the moderating effect of the biographical variables (race, marital status, number of children, job level and education) on the relationship between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and perceived organisational support) and the career satisfaction construct.

Based on the findings of the present study, organisations should take cognisance of biographical characteristics when developing career development interventions aimed at strengthening the psychosocial attributes of women, as these could have an influence on the career satisfaction professional women experience.

6.5.8.6 *Counter-intuitive findings*

In this study, biographical variables (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) did not reveal any significant moderating effects on the relationship between the psychosocial attribute construct variables (career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and social support) and the career satisfaction construct. Previous research in terms of the psychosocial-related attributes showed that older workers' age had moderated the relationship between career adaptability and job satisfaction (Zacher & Griffin, 2015).

6.5.9 **Research aim 7: Interpretation of the results for significant mean differences**

Research aim 7 was to assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction factors.

Tables 6.37 to 6.44 and Figure 6.15 are relevant to this section.

6.5.9.1 *Education level: Differences regarding emotional intelligence*

The findings indicated significant differences between the emotional intelligence levels among participants within the master's degree and certificate/diploma education groups. Master's participants had significantly lower levels of emotional intelligence when compared to the certificate/diploma participants. These findings could suggest that certificate/diploma participants may be socially competent in managing their own emotions and evaluating their emotional reactions in their interaction with co-workers. The finding differs from that of Kumar and Muniandy (2012) who found that levels of emotional intelligence increased with increment of academic qualification with a master's qualification recording higher emotional intelligence than a diploma/degree qualification.

6.5.9.2 *Total monthly income: Differences regarding career adaptability*

The results showed that the participants who earned less than R15 000 total monthly income scored significantly higher on career adaptability compared to participants who earned

R20 000–R29 999 total monthly income. The findings could suggest that the participants who earned less than R15 000 total monthly income possessed adaptive resources aimed at increasing personal control over the vocational future and had the confidence that pursuing career aspirations should increase expectancies of an increase in income and satisfaction with careers (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

6.5.9.3 Age, race, marital status, job level, total monthly income and education level: Differences regarding psychosocial career preoccupations

The results showed that participants within the age group 25–44 years obtained significantly higher levels of psychosocial career preoccupations than participants 45 and older. The participants within age group 25–44 years appeared to have concerns and preoccupations about their careers. The findings could suggest that participants between the ages of 25–44 years may have issues and concerns about security and career advancement during this period. This was in line with research by Coetzee (2016), which suggested that individuals between 25–44 years had a relatively similar pattern of concerns relating to the vocational developmental tasks of career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment.

The findings showed significant differences between the level of psychosocial career preoccupations among participants within the African and white race groups. African participants had significantly higher levels of psychosocial career preoccupations when compared to the white participants. This suggested that African participants were more preoccupied with issues and concerns relating to career development opportunities and advancement. The findings could be attributed to perceived unequal career development opportunities and a lack of closer ties for exposure to advance in the profession, notwithstanding the South African employment legislation (affirmative action and the Employment Equity Act) to establish fair access to equitable opportunities for career development and advancement in the workplace (Coetzee, 2016; Wöcke, & Sutherland, 2008).

The results suggested that single and divorced/separated participants significantly differed with regard to their psychosocial career preoccupation levels. Divorced/separated participants had significantly lower levels of psychosocial career preoccupations when compared to single participants. Single participants appeared to have career preoccupations or concerns relating to career development opportunities, advancement and developing new skills. Deas (2017) found that married participants scored significantly lower than single/divorced participants in terms of career opportunities.

Little is known about total monthly income differences regarding psychosocial career preoccupations. In this study of professional women, there were also job level differences among participants regarding psychosocial career preoccupations. Participants within the executive group displayed significantly lower psychosocial career preoccupations when compared to the employee group. This suggests that the lower-level employees in the organisations may have concerns about career establishment, adaptation and work/life adjustment, which may be attributed to concerns about economic and social status, advancing in one's career, lifestyle and career well-being. Similarly, low total monthly income groups (less than R15 000) revealed significantly higher levels of psychosocial career preoccupations than their counterparts (R50 000 and over). These findings would suggest that low total monthly income groups (less than R15 000) had issues and concerns about economic stability and security, as well as employability concerns in the employment market.

Little is known about education level differences regarding psychosocial career preoccupations. In this study of professional women, the certificate/diploma education group had significantly higher levels of psychosocial career preoccupations than their counterparts with a master's degree. This suggests that the certificate/diploma participants have concerns about employability and career development opportunities, which allow them to develop their skills.

6.5.9.4 Total monthly income: Differences regarding self-efficacy

The findings suggest that participants within the lower total monthly income group (less than R15 000) scored significantly higher on self-efficacy beliefs than their counterparts earning a higher total monthly income (R20 000–R29 999). The findings could imply that the lower total monthly income group had beliefs in their capacity to perform the required work tasks, since they were confident that their efforts would yield success (Bandura & Locke, 2003). This finding is in line with that of Abele and Spurk (2009) who found that the higher the participants' self-efficacy and career advancement goals had been at career entry, the more they earned and the higher their status later on.

6.5.9.5 Age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level: Differences regarding perceived organisational support

The results showed that participants within the age group 25–44 obtained significantly lower levels of perceived organisational support than the older participants. The findings could suggest that participants between the ages 25–44 were of the view that their organisations

were not supportive of career goals and development activities, which were important for their performance and career success. This was consistent with the research by Khurshid and Anjum (2012), which revealed that younger teachers expressed lower perceived organisational support than older teachers.

The results suggest that Indian and white participants significantly differed with regard to their perceived organisational support levels. The Indian participants displayed significantly lower levels of perceived organisational support compared to the white participants. The findings could suggest that the Indian participants perceived that their organisations did not value their contribution and appeared not to invest in and create a supportive environment for career development. This was in line with the research by Luksyte et al. (2013), which showed that black employees perceived fewer career advancement opportunities than their Hispanic or white counterparts.

There were also differences among participants in the marital status and number of children groups regarding perceived organisational support. Single participants without children displayed significantly lower perceived organisational support when compared to divorced/separated participants and those with children. The finding suggested that single participants without children did not perceive their organisations to value their contribution and/or cared about their socio-emotional needs (concern and caring) or were supportive of their career advancement. It is likely that, although participants are single with no children, they may be responsible for caring after aging or sick family members. The finding is in line with research by Eisenberger et al. (2004), which suggests that the potential for perceived organisational support should demonstrate availability of socio-emotional and tangible support in the workplace.

Little is known about job level differences regarding POS. In this study of professional women, the results revealed that executive women scored significantly higher on perceived organisational support compared to employee women. This suggested that executive women perceived that their organisations valued their contribution, and both invested and created a supportive environment for career development and also encouraged them to make use of the opportunities for skills development.

The findings indicated significant differences between perceived organisational support levels of participants earning less than R15 000 and participants who had a degree qualification compared to income groups earning R50 000 and over and those having a master's degree. Employees earning less than R15 000 and who had a degree had significantly lower levels of

perceived organisational support when compared to the executive income group earning R50 000 and over and having a master's education level. This suggested that employees earning less than R15 000 and those having a degree education level appeared to be concerned about job stability, fair and proper income distribution, career development opportunities and advancement. The finding is in line with research by Streicher et al. (2012), which suggests that justice in organisations and procedural fair conditions in particular can foster cooperative, voluntary and constructive employee behaviour, such as intrinsic motivation to meet organisational goals.

6.5.9.6 Race, marital status and job level: Differences regarding social support

The present findings showed significant differences between perceived social support among participants within the white and Indian race groups. Indian participants indicated significantly lower perceptions of social support when compared to the white participants. This suggested that white participants perceived emotional caring and friendship, which confirmed an individual's sense of self, including an increase in the individual's sense of control, belonging, competence and confidence in a professional role (Thoits, 2011). Sloan et al. (2013) have found that the racial composition of a workplace may influence the formation of workplace social ties, as both black and white co-workers experience similar emotional benefits of social support.

There were also marital status differences among participants regarding social support. The divorced/separated group displayed significantly lower social support when compared to the married group. This suggested that the divorced/separated group perceived a lack of close relationships that could assist them to foster coping and belonging, and to access socio-emotional support for their well-being (Sloan et al., 2013). Calvete and Connor-Smith (2006) suggest that the protective effect of perceived social support may be related to the low levels of disengagement coping used by individuals who feel they have emotional and instrumental support from family, friends and other important persons in their lives.

Little is known about job level differences of professional women regarding the social support construct. In this study of professional women, the results revealed that director-level women scored significantly higher on social support compared to executive-level women. This suggested that director-level women perceived adequate support from their family, friends and co-workers more so than their executive counterparts. This may be attributed to perceived social relationships and ties that provide emotionally sustaining behaviours and instrumental aid, which promote physical and emotional well-being

6.5.9.7 Age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level: Differences regarding career satisfaction

The findings revealed that the older participants within the 45–60 age group scored significantly higher on career satisfaction than their younger counterparts. This suggests that older participants are satisfied about their career-related roles, accomplishments and success. This was congruent with the research by Leigh et al. (2009), which found that older employees derived considerable satisfaction from their careers. Younger participants' career satisfaction was low. This suggested that individuals between 25–44 years appeared to experience satisfaction with their overall career goals, including salary, advancement or accomplishments and new skills development opportunities. This was in line with research by Leigh et al. (2009), which indicated older physicians had experienced higher levels of career satisfaction than their younger counterparts.

The results suggested that white and African participants significantly differed with regard to their career satisfaction levels. African participants had significantly lower levels of career satisfaction when compared to the white participants. The present research findings could suggest that white participants were satisfied with their career progress or accomplishments and anticipated goals (e.g. salary income). This is congruent with research by Yap et al. (2010), which found that black employees were less satisfied with their careers than white employees.

Similar to perceived organisational support, there were also marital status and number of children differences among women regarding career satisfaction. Single women without children displayed significantly lower career satisfaction when compared to divorced/separated women and those with children. This suggested that single women without children were less satisfied in terms of income, development of new skills, career accomplishment and success in their current job. The results are in line with findings by Saner and Eyüpoğlu (2013), which showed that the job satisfaction of married academics on the whole was higher than that of unmarried academics.

The results suggested that job level groups significantly differed with regard to their career satisfaction levels. Executive women displayed significantly higher levels of career satisfaction than their employee/manager/senior manager/director counterparts. This suggested that, considering their job level, it would be expected that executive women would be satisfied with their careers in terms of income, advancement of career-related roles, career accomplishment and success (Karavardar, 2014).

Employees earning less than R15 000 had significantly lower levels of career satisfaction when compared to their counterparts earning R50 000 and over. This suggested that there was a significant relationship between the women's income level and satisfaction with careers. This was congruent with the results by Bakan and Buyukbese (2013), which indicated that employees with higher income levels had reported significantly higher levels of satisfaction than did employees with low income levels. Similarly, women with a master's degree experienced significantly higher levels of career satisfaction compared to their counterparts with an undergraduate degree. This suggested that employees in the undergraduate degree group appeared less satisfied with their career progress in meeting goals for income, development of new professional skills and achievement of career goals than their master's degree counterparts. The present results are in line with a study by Chen (2012), which has found that education level is positively related to a higher salary, career development and employee career satisfaction.

The present results indicate that biographical differences need to be considered when developing career development policies and interventions of professional women. This will assist organisations to nurture and improve the professional women's psychosocial attributes and increase their experiences of career satisfaction.

6.5.9.8 Critical reflection

In this study, the results contributed to the construction of the psychosocial profile of professional women by identifying the psychosocial attributes and mean differences between biographical characteristics which contributed to enhancing the career satisfaction of professional women. The findings provided organisations and career counsellors with knowledge for designing new and effective career development interventions to address the unique career needs of women. These organisational supportive measures could increase women's career satisfaction as they progress through different life/career stages.

6.5.9.9 Counter-intuitive findings

No significant differences were observed between the various age groups in terms of their emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy and social support. El Badawy and Magdy (2015), however, showed that there was a positive relationship between age and emotional intelligence. Further results showed that age predicted change in overall career adaptability (Zacher, 2014b). Amatucci and Crawley (2011) found that age differences were significantly related to self-efficacy with older women higher in self-efficacy.

No significant differences could be found between the various race groups in terms of their emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy. Pillay et al. (2013), however, found that black participants scored high on emotional intelligence. The findings by Coetzee and Stoltz (2015) indicated that black participants showed higher levels of career adaptability than their white counterparts. Amatuucci and Crawley (2011) found that white women scored higher on self-efficacy than their black counterparts.

No significant differences were observed between the various marital status groups in terms of their emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy. Ferreira (2012) found that married participants had higher levels of career adaptability in their careers or jobs than their single counterparts. Mashhady et al. (2012) found that married teachers' self-efficacy was significantly higher than that of single teachers, and married teachers' self-efficacy increased over time with years of experience.

Little is known about number of children and job level differences of professional women regarding the emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy and social support construct. In this study, no significant differences could be found between the various number of children groups in terms of their emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy and social support. In addition, no significant differences were observed between the various job level groups in terms of their emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy. Furthermore, no significant differences could be found between the various monthly income groups in terms of their emotional intelligence and social support.

No significant differences were observed between the various education groups in terms of their career adaptability, self-efficacy and social support. A study by Zacher (2014b), however, showed that education differentially predicted change over time in one or more of the four career adaptability dimensions. Zhang et al. (2015) found a significant positive relationship between educational level and self-efficacy.

6.5.10 Synthesis and evaluation: Towards constructing a psychosocial profile for career success

The central hypothesis of this study assumed that an overall relationship exists between the constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support (as a composite set of independent variables) and career satisfaction (as a dependent variable) constitute a

psychosocial profile that may be used to inform the contemporary career development practices of professional women. The present study also assumed that social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) would significantly mediate the relationship between the individual's experiences and/or perceptions of her psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.

Furthermore, individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) would significantly moderate the relationship between their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction. Furthermore, individuals from different groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) would have different levels of psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support), and different experiences of career satisfaction.

In this study, the significant associations between the variables highlighted psychosocial elements that should be considered when formulating the career development policies and strategies for professional women.

Relationships between constructs of the psychosocial profile and the career satisfaction construct highlighted the following:

- Positive relationships between the psychosocial-related attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction
- Negative relationships between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction
- No significant relationship between the emotional intelligence sub-dimension 'utilisation of emotions' and career satisfaction

Standard multiple regression showed that biographical characteristics predicted the following:

- Age acted as predictor of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support.
- Race acted as predictor of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and career satisfaction.

- Marital status acted as predictor of social support.
- Job level acted as predictor of psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational and career satisfaction.
- Total monthly income acted as predictor of career satisfaction.

Canonical correlations and SEM highlighted the following as important psychosocial-related attributes for the career development and satisfaction of women:

- Managing own emotions (emotional intelligence)
- Career control (career adaptability)
- Psychosocial career preoccupations
- Self-efficacy
- POS
- Career satisfaction

The results of the mediation modelling analysis showed the following:

- Perceived organisational and social support strengthen links between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.
- POS construct lowered career preoccupations and strengthened career satisfaction.

The results of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis revealed the following:

- Race moderated the relationship between psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence and organisational support) and career satisfaction.
- Marital status and number of children moderated the relationship between self-efficacy and career satisfaction.
- Job level moderated the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.
- Education levels moderated the relationship between emotional intelligence and career satisfaction.
- Biographical variables (age and total monthly income) did not moderate the relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction.
- Race, marital status, number of children, job level and education level did not moderate the relationship between psychosocial attributes (career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and social support) and career satisfaction.

The results of the tests for mean differences revealed the following:

- Age differed for psychosocial career preoccupations, POS and career satisfaction.
- Race differed for psychosocial career preoccupations, POS, social support and career satisfaction.
- Marital status differed for psychosocial career preoccupations, POS, social support and career satisfaction.
- Job level differed for psychosocial career preoccupations, POS, social support and career satisfaction.
- Total monthly income differed for career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, POS, social support and career satisfaction.
- Education level differed for emotional intelligence, psychosocial career preoccupations, POS and career satisfaction.

Figure 6.17 provides the empirically manifested psychosocial profile, which can be adopted during the contemporary career development strategies to enhance the career satisfaction of professional women.

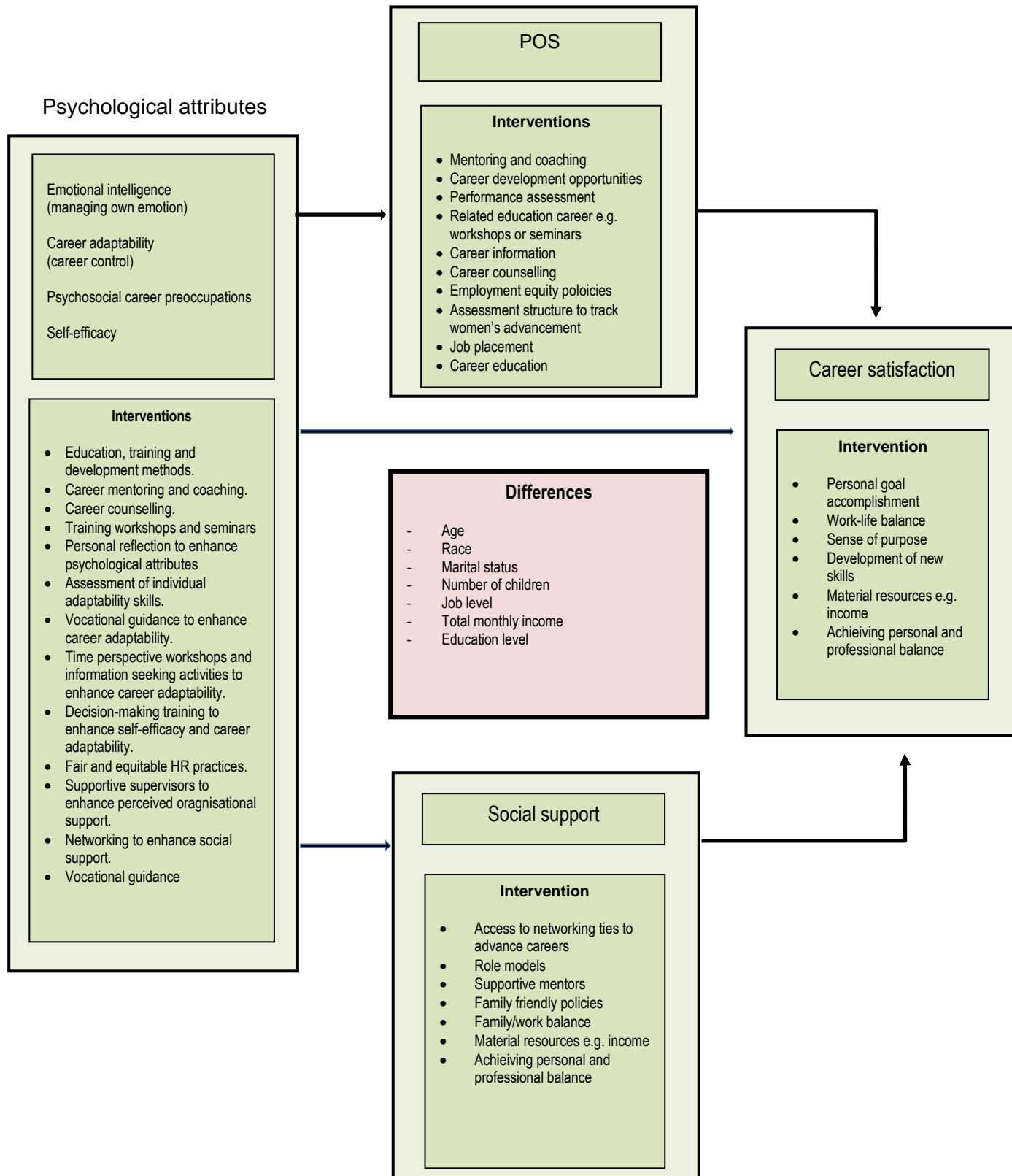


Figure 6.17: Empirically manifested psychosocial profile for career success

The canonical correlation data was used to inform the SEM, and the results demonstrated that managing own emotions (emotional intelligence), career control (career adaptability), career establishment preoccupations (psychosocial career preoccupations), self-efficacy, POS and family support had contributed most significantly to explaining the career satisfaction construct. In order to enhance the career satisfaction of professional women, HR practitioners, industrial and organisational psychologists should consider the elements of the psychosocial profile when developing the career development processes and strategies.

In terms of the emotional intelligence construct, the results revealed that the most important factor to consider is managing own emotions. This is in line with research by Coetzee and Harry (2014) which found that managing one's own emotions contributed the most in explaining overall emotional intelligence. The emotional intelligence skills can be applied within the Bronfenbrenner (1997) ecological model (i.e., the continuous dynamic interpersonal interaction between the individual, social networks and the home or work environment) that shape the career development and progression of women (Cook et al., 2002). In that viewpoint, emotional intelligence combines emotional and social competencies for career development and advancement aimed at enhancing career satisfaction, as well as having the capacity to maintain focus, perseverance and overcome both work and non-work challenges (Bar-On, 2006; Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011). Hence, the confidence in one's ability to manage one's own and others' emotions could determine as to whether an individual perceives the organisation or social networks as offering support in career development goals (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011). Emotional intelligence capacities are both teachable and can be learnt; thus, training may be incorporated as a psycho-educational component of career development interventions to develop, strengthen and enhance the career development and work success of women (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011).

In terms of career adaptability, the results show that career control is an important adaptive skill to consider for the career development and success of women. The findings are supported by Duffy (2010) who found that individuals with a greater sense of career control were more likely to view themselves as adaptive to the world of work. Career control is a self-regulatory resource, which reflects intrapersonal self-discipline and it entails processes of being diligent, deliberate, organised and decisive in performing career development tasks and making occupational transitions (Öncel, 2014). Career control should empower women to take personal responsibility for their career and work experience, exercise self-discipline, effort and persistence to enhance career development and success (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Career adaptability skills are important for resolving problems related to the development of professional competence, and a career-oriented learning environment is especially important

to improve career adaptability (Guo et al., 2014). Organisations should develop relevant training and self-management programmes to strengthen career adaptability skills, including career discussions around career goals and plans to improve career control skills. Hence, improving career adaptability should have positive effects on individuals' career satisfaction and performance (Zacher, 2014a).

The research results revealed that participants' levels of career preoccupations were related to career satisfaction. These findings are in line with the research by Coetzee (2015), which found that employees' career preoccupations influence their work-related attitudes, such as engagement and commitment. Career preoccupations such as employability, developing new skills, career development opportunities and achieving greater work/life balance are likely to influence career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2016). Research indicates that achieving professional and personal balance has a positive effect on women's career satisfaction (Kalet et al., 2006). Organisations need to provide career development opportunities which are aligned to the unique needs of women so that they continue to contribute meaningfully during each phase of their careers. Particularly in the earlier career phase, it is critical for women to have access to successful female role models and to see concrete evidence that organisations are supportive of their desires for career success (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005). HR professionals should work with individuals to identify the necessary resources that would provide opportunities to continue to learn, to develop new skills and to feel challenged in their careers.

The results revealed that self-efficacy is related to career satisfaction. Previous research confirms that self-efficacy is positively related to career satisfaction (Pachulicz et al., 2008). Highly efficacious individuals tend to have confidence in their ability to engage in specific tasks or courses of action to completion (Michaelides, 2008). Research findings indicate that employees who have succeeded in job-related tasks are more likely to have confidence to complete comparable tasks in the future (Lunenburg, 2011). Self-efficacy can be applied to work-related performance in terms of motivating individuals to learn and perform tasks successfully (Cherian & Jacob, 2013). Organisations should provide training initiatives which allow employees to successfully perform complex tasks, and support them in taking on challenging tasks to improve self-efficacy beliefs. Research indicates that individuals develop a strong sense of efficacy beliefs through past performance or mastery experiences (Bandura, 2004). Organisations should encourage and strengthen women's efficacy beliefs in the workplace through training and development opportunities, setting high personal goals and supportive leadership.

In this study, POS was related to career satisfaction. Previous research findings confirm that perceived organisational support has a significant effect on career satisfaction (Latif & Sher, 2012). Research indicates that career development opportunities, supervisory support, promotion opportunities and reward expectations are important antecedents of perceived organisational support (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). Research also indicates that organisations can influence employees' experience of career success by supporting their career development (Barnett & Bradley, 2007). Organisations should provide career development opportunities such as career guidance and information, learning opportunities and challenging work assignments as these will promote career advancement. Organisations should also provide HR policies that are designed to help women balance both family responsibilities and career progression. HR policies on day-care centres for new mothers and flexible work hours should motivate women who are concerned with career progression. Hence, organisations should provide supportive environments for career skills development, and stimulate individuals to make active use of the opportunities for skills development.

The findings of this study provided evidence that women who experienced high family support also reported increased career satisfaction. Previous research confirms that high levels of social support in the form of emotional, instrumental and appraisal support from family members contribute to career success (Lirio et al. 2007). Research indicates that personal support is strongly related to women's subjective career success (Nabi, 2001). Research findings also indicate that for women, spousal support is related to reducing work-family conflict (Aycan & Eskin, 2005). Perceived social support may be related to coping capabilities of individuals who feel they have emotional and instrumental support from family, friends and other important persons in their lives (Calvete & Connor-Smith, 2006). Hence, research shows that support for the three sources of social support (family, friends and co-workers) provides positive support to individuals (Jairam & Kahl, 2012). The findings indicate that women with a strong sense of social support are more inclined to experience success with their careers. Organisations should provide a platform for supportive networks and encourage employees to align themselves with co-workers who identify with their career development goals for content-based expertise and guidance (Jairam & Kahl, 2012). HR professionals should encourage employees to seek assistance from family members on certain tasks, and to educate family members on work and career development experiences.

The results of the mediation analysis revealed that POS and social support functioned as significant mechanisms in buffering the negative effect of high career preoccupations on levels of career satisfaction, and strengthening the link between emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy, and career satisfaction. The findings indicated that when

employees' perceptions of organisational support for career development opportunities increased, their career preoccupations or concerns (i.e., personal growth and development, advancing in one's career, employability and work/life balance) decreased, which in turn, increased their career satisfaction (i.e., overall career goals, goals for income, advancement and development of new skills). In addition, the results showed that when employees perceived increased organisational support, their emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy increased, which in turn, increased their career satisfaction. In other words, when employees perceive that their organisation is supportive of their career development and advancement, they will be more confident that they have the required skills and ability (self-efficacy), respond appropriately (emotional intelligence) to career development opportunities and take responsibility for career decisions and actions (career adaptability) to achieve career development goals, which in turn, could enhance their career satisfaction. Hence, active support from senior management is critical to a comprehensive and sustainable career development process (Wickramaratne, 2013).

Research suggests that antecedents of perceived organisational support include supportive treatment and favourable work experiences such as training and development, promotion opportunities and reward expectations (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). With regard to these results at individual level:

- Formal career discussions concerning women's career preoccupations should be established to increase their self-awareness about their career interests, needs, concerns and goals in relation to their career satisfaction.
- An individual needs assessment study should be conducted so that possible needs could be met and satisfied.
- Career counsellors should facilitate self-assessment of an individual's psychological capabilities and the social environment to determine the action plan, as well as outline specific tasks to be pursued to accomplish career goals.
- Organisations should encourage individual career development goal setting and monitoring performance.

At organisational level:

- Organisations should design interventions that aim to lower the employees' career preoccupations, strengthen and enhance the emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy resources of professional women.
- Career development support in the form of mentoring, coaching and career counselling should be established to help women understand their psychological capabilities and employ career strategies in achieving the career goals and aspirations of women.
- Organisations should provide supportive environments, particularly from senior management, for career skills development, and stimulate individuals to make active use of the opportunities for new skills development.
- HR professionals should provide emotional and technical support on work-related activities.
- Organisations should also provide career guidance and information, learning opportunities and challenging work assignments to promote career development and advancement.
- It is important for organisations to address employees' career development needs and work-life balance in career-planning activities and discussions to enhance the levels of satisfaction among professional women.

The results of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis contributed to the development of the psychosocial profile to enhance the career success of professional women through identifying the moderating effect of the biographical characteristics (race, marital status, number of children, job level and education) on the relationship between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and perceived organisational support) and the career satisfaction construct. The findings indicated that biographical characteristics (race, marital status, number of children, job level and education) strengthened the links between psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and perceived organisational support) and career satisfaction. Previous research has highlighted the moderating role of some biographical characteristics on career outcomes supports these results (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2013; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Rehman, Ullah, & Abrar-ul-haq, 2015). Therefore, organisations should consider biographical characteristics when developing career

development strategies for women. This will likely improve the psychosocial resources of women and in turn enhance their career satisfaction.

6.5.10.1 Biographical characteristics profile

The results showed that the psychosocial resources of women differed in terms of certain biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level).

Significant differences were observed for age, race and job level groups regarding career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support, and career satisfaction. Younger women experienced higher levels of career preoccupations (i.e., concerns for career development and advancement) than their older counterparts. Women in this study were predominantly in the establishment life/career stage, which is dominated by career establishment preoccupations (i.e., concerns for career development opportunities, personal growth and development and career advancement). The results are in line with findings by O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) who have found that women in their early careers will most likely base their career choices on their concerns about career satisfaction, will proactively take strategic steps to ensure career progress and see their careers as opportunities to achieve success. Similarly, younger women perceived lower levels of organisational support and career satisfaction than their older counterparts. Organisations should develop and implement work/family policies and programmes, which support the unique needs of young women to enhance their career development, advancement and satisfaction.

Black women experienced higher career preoccupations and lower perceptions of organisational support and career satisfaction. The results were in line with the findings by Deas (2017) who found that black participants scored lower on career preoccupations, in particular opportunities for career development. Similarly, previous research showed that black employees who perceived fewer career advancement opportunities were less satisfied with career development opportunities for career growth (Faupel-Badger et al., 2017; Luksyte et al., 2013). The South African government introduced employment equity legislation, as well as affirmative action policies aimed at promoting equal opportunity and redressing unfair discrimination towards women and other previously disadvantaged groups in the workplace (Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008). Although the equity and affirmative policies have been implemented in organisations, in this study, black women appear concerned about their career development opportunities and career progression. Organisations should develop fair and equitable policies, which maximise equal career opportunities for the career development and

advancement for all employees. In addition, organisations should ensure that information about career development opportunities is clearly communicated to black women.

The results revealed that women's career preoccupations, perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction differed in terms of job level. Women in lower-level jobs experienced high levels of career preoccupations, but low perceptions of organisational support and career satisfaction. It is interesting to note that certificate/diploma education level employees and those earning less than R15 000 also experienced higher career preoccupations, and lower POS and career satisfaction than their other counterparts. Employees who earned R50 000 and over perceived higher organisational support and career satisfaction when compared to their counterparts earning less than R15 000. This implies that, as individuals progress through their career life stages, their income tends to increase in relation to work experience (Super, 1990), they mature and become knowledgeable about their career goals, and it is expected that they will strive towards activities which bring satisfaction (Young et al., 2014).

The present findings also suggest that career establishment preoccupations, predominantly in the early adulthood life/career stage, which include concerns about employability, economic stability and security, continuous learning and establishing opportunities for career development and advancement could be associated with low perceptions or experiences of the organisation's support and career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2015). The results are supported by previous research on human capital accumulation (Judge et al., 1995), which indicates that investing in high-quality education and skills development in the early adulthood life/career stage may be regarded as necessary for achieving favourable career outcomes in both salary and job level (Fasil, 2008). In addition, a study on career stages of professional women by Smart (1998) found that satisfaction with pay and job involvement was lowest in the early adulthood life/career stage. Organisations should assess and engage with employees working in lower-level jobs to identify their career development needs and encourage these employees to access the career development opportunities. Organisations should also provide communication that promotes access to information about learning and development of new skills and career progression in the organisation. This will enable employees to view their organisation as supportive of their career goals, which in turn, is likely to increase career satisfaction.

Executive-level women experienced lower social support than their other counterparts. The results are in line with findings by Demerouti et al. (2004) who has found that low social support in the home situation increases work-family conflict. Previous research indicates the inclusion

of work-family support and the role of spousal support for employees in senior management positions (Annink et al., 2016). The findings imply that working long hours or taking work home may disengage women in senior management positions from family members and spouses' unique opportunity to provide both emotional and instrumental support. Organisations should provide work-family programmes and family-friendly policies that help women to achieve work-family balance, which in turn, may improve satisfaction with their careers.

The results indicate that total monthly income has significantly influenced career adaptability and self-efficacy. Women earning more than R20 000 experience lower career adaptability and self-efficacy beliefs than their other counterparts. Previous research showed that the higher the participants' self-efficacy and career advancement goals at career entry, the higher they earned and the higher their status later on (Abele & Spurk, 2009). Furthermore, Zacher (2015) found that daily career adaptability and daily confidence positively predicted daily task and career performance, as well as daily job and career satisfaction. The results suggested that women earning more than R20 000 could have less confidence in their ability to remain persistent and to take personal responsibility for their careers and work experiences due to perceived challenges or barriers experienced pursuing even higher income goals. Favourable organisational conditions and career development support practices that foster proactive and career development goal may elicit higher levels of subjective and objective experiences of career success, which may possibly lead to career satisfaction and job performance (Coetzee et al., 2010).

The findings revealed that certificate/diploma education level employees experienced higher emotional intelligence than their other counterparts in senior management positions. The results were in line with findings by Anand and Udayasuriyan (2010) who found that emotional intelligence was high for non-professional degree holders who occupied leadership positions. The findings suggest that organisations should provide career development training programmes to develop and enhance the emotional intelligence skills of leadership so that they can effectively impart knowledge to subordinates, as well as maintain satisfactory working relationships with members of the organisation (Anand & Udayasuriyan, 2010).

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that biographical differences need to be considered when developing career development policies and strategies. This will assist organisations to nurture and improve employees' psychosocial attributes, and increase their experiences of career satisfaction.

6.5.10.2 *Main findings: Synthesis*

In summary, the descriptive statistics revealed a dominant profile for the career development and success of the women participants showed that they had relatively strong beliefs in their ability to engage in specific tasks, and they also had insight into their career development. Participants were able to 'manage their own and others' emotions' and 'perceived career control' to take personal responsibility to pursue and achieve their career goals and aspirations. The strongest career preoccupations that drove career development needs (career establishment preoccupations) were somewhat high, indicating concerns with careers, feeling a sense of insecurity and lack of upskilling opportunities on the job. This can be expected, considering that the dominant age group of the participants (between 25–45 years) is preoccupied with concerns for security and career advancement. In terms of social strengths, perceived organisational support was somewhat lower than social support aspects. Career satisfaction was somewhat lower, but could be improved with the implementation of career development programmes and policies.

In terms of the correlational statistics, the results showed significant positive relationships between the psychosocial-related attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction. The overall psychosocial career preoccupations construct was significantly and negatively related to the career satisfaction construct.

In terms of the inferential statistics, the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) appeared to be core contributing factors to enhance women's career satisfaction.

The canonical correlations revealed career preoccupations managing own emotions (emotional intelligence), career control (career adaptability), self-efficacy, POS and family support (social support) were the strongest predictors of career satisfaction. The canonical correlations analysis was also useful in the SEM. The model further revealed that overall, the psychosocial profile (career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction generated a good model fit.

The results of the mediation modelling analysis indicated that perceived organisational and social support strengthened links between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence,

career adaptability and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction. Furthermore, perceived organisational support was observed to lower career preoccupations and strengthen career satisfaction. As a result, psychosocial career preoccupation concerns about career development, when significantly reduced, increased career satisfaction through perceived organisational support.

The main findings indicated that the hierarchical moderated regression analysis contributed to the development of the psychosocial profile to enhance the career success of professional women through identifying the moderating effect of the biographical variables (race, marital status, number of children, job level and education) on the relationship between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and perceived organisational support) and the career satisfaction construct.

The test for significant mean differences showed research participants from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differed significantly in terms of the psychosocial-related variables (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and the career satisfaction variable.

Therefore, organisations should consider the psychosocial attributes and biographical differences when developing career development and advancement strategies to enhance the career success of professional women in the diverse South African context.

The results showed supportive evidence for most of the stated research hypotheses as indicated in Table 6.45 below.

6.5.10.3 Counter-intuitive findings

The findings indicated that social support did not mediate psychosocial career preoccupations and the career satisfaction relationship. However, previous research has revealed that there is an association between social support and career thoughts on the career planning and decision-making process (Rodriguez, 2012). No significant correlation was observed between the emotional intelligence construct, utilisation of emotions and career satisfaction. On the contrary, Psilopanagioti et al. (2012) found that emotional intelligence, in particular use of emotions, was significantly and positively related with job satisfaction.

Age did not moderate the relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction. However, the findings by O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) suggest that younger women in the early career will most likely base their career choices on their desires or concerns about career satisfaction. In addition, Zacher and Griffin (2015) found that older workers' age moderated the relationship between career adaptability and job satisfaction.

6.5.11 Decisions regarding the research hypothesis

Table 6.45 provides the conclusion with regard to the research hypotheses.

Table 6.45

Overview of Decisions Regarding the Research Hypotheses

Research hypotheses	Supportive evidence
H1 There are statistically significant interrelationships between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context.	Yes
H2 Individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predict their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction.	Yes
H3 Psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), as a composite set of latent independent variables, are significantly related to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction as a composite set of latent dependent variables.	Yes
H4 Individuals' social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.	Yes
H5 The hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile has a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model, as based on the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors.	Yes
H6 There is a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction.	Yes
H7 Individuals from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) will differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction.	Yes

6.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided the findings of the descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics to examine the nature of the empirical relationships between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction. The findings of the literature review and the empirical research were interpreted, and provided support for the research hypotheses.

The following research aims were achieved:

Research aim 1: To investigate empirically the nature of the statistical interrelationship between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context.

Research aim 2: To empirically assess whether individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predict their psychosocial attribute constructs and career satisfaction.

Research aim 3: To assess whether psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), as a composite set of latent independent variables, significantly relate to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

Research aim 4: To investigate empirically whether the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.

Research aim 5: To assess whether the hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile has a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model as based on the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors.

Research aim 6: To assess empirically whether there is a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction.

Research aim 7: To assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction factors.

Chapter 7 will highlight research aim 8, namely to formulate recommendations for industrial and organisational psychologists and HR professionals for the contemporary career development practices of professional women, and to formulate suggestions for future research in the field.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a discussion of research aim 8, and highlights the recommendations for industrial and organisational psychologists, career counsellors and human resource (HR) professionals, and for possible future research based on the findings of this research project. The chapter further addresses the limitations of the literature review and empirical study. Recommendations for the practical application of the findings are made, and suggestions for future research studies in the field are provided.

7.1 CONCLUSIONS

Section 7.1.1 focuses on the formulation of conclusions based on the literature review and empirical study according to the research aims, as outlined in Chapter 1.

7.1.1 Conclusions regarding the literature review

The general aim of this research was to investigate and determine the relationship dynamics between psychosocial-related dispositional attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) of individuals and their career satisfaction capacities, and whether it would be possible to construct an overall psychosocial profile, which could potentially inform career development practices in a diverse South African organisational context.

The study further aimed to determine whether individuals of different groups, i.e. age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level, differed significantly with regard to their psychosocial-related dispositional attributes and their career satisfaction capacities. Furthermore, the research aimed to outline the implications of an overall psychosocial profile for contemporary career development aimed at enhancing career satisfaction among professional women in the diverse South African context.

The conclusions were drawn for each of the specific aims with regard to the relational dynamics between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction.

7.1.1.1 *Research aim 1: To conceptualise the career development and satisfaction of women within the contemporary employment context*

The first aim, as stated above, was achieved in Chapter 2. On the basis of the literature review, the following conclusions were drawn about the career development and satisfaction of women within the contemporary employment context:

- Career development is viewed as a continuous stream of career-relevant events and a total collection of psychological, social, physical, economic, educational and chance factors that combine to shape the career of the individual over his or her lifespan (Patton & MacMahon, 2014; Sears, 1982). The career development of women may be regarded as complex, and is characterised by a high degree of uncertainty due to the changing nature of work, including social and organisational assumptions that persistently create barriers for women's employment, promotion opportunities, work-life balance, career development and satisfaction (Mathur-Helm, 2005; Maxwell, Smith, Caputi, & Crittenden, 2012; Stamarski & Son Hing, 2015).
- It is evident from the literature that career development systems, which are based on the assumptions of traditional organisational structures and linear career models, are no longer sufficient to address the needs of professional women (August, 2011; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008; Tajlili, 2014). Although it has been acknowledged that the career paths of women differ from those of their male counterparts, continued gender role stereotyping and discrimination, family responsibilities, including employment inequity, remain the major barriers to the career development and satisfaction of women (Department of Women, South Africa, 2015; Mathur-Helm, 2005; O'Neil et al., 2008).
- It appears the boundaryless and protean career approaches are characteristic of the contemporary work environment and represent orientations that may lead to a clearer identity, including reformulation of strategies to adapt to career transitions or new environments (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011; Seibert et al., 2016).
- Women may be driven to adopt protean career orientations (see section 2.1.1.2) to satisfy their personal values of authenticity, balance and challenge in a boundaryless career perspective that enables them to experience high levels of freedom to engage in psychological mobility and create balance between work and non-work roles (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Waters et al., 2014). The protean career

suggests that the individual takes greater responsibility for career choices and opportunities and subjective career success is viewed as the key criteria for success (Briscoe & Hall, 2006).

- Essentially, careers are described in two ways (Arthur et al., 2005). Subjective careers are salient and create perceptions of a sense of calling, enact one's personal purpose, life meaning, career satisfaction and personal fulfilment (Chinyamurindi, 2016; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Hirschi, 2011). Conversely, there are objective careers, which reflect the external, often discreet indicators of advancement or status, positions and situations that occur in an individual's career history and social setting (Arthur et al., 2005; Stumpf, 2014).
- Career satisfaction is a subjective measure that stems from individuals' perceptions of their satisfaction with their overall career goals, including salary, advancement and new skills development opportunities (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Karavardar, 2014; Yap et al., 2010). Career satisfaction may be attributed to the development of competencies associated with one's job, and provides opportunities for career advancement (Srikanth & Israel, 2012).
- Psychosocial attributes have been shown to reflect individual resources for managing career tasks and challenges (Zacher, 2014b). For example, a study by De Vos et al. (2011) revealed that perceived support for competency development appeared to be positively related to career satisfaction. In a study of psychosocial attributes, the findings of Ohme and Zacher (2015) emphasised the importance of career adaptability for more objective indicators of work and career success. Coetzee and Harry (2014) confirm that emotional intelligence and career adaptability are important psychosocial meta-capacities for successful adaptation in various spheres of life, including the domain of careers. In addition, Spurk and Abele (2014) suggest that over time, self-efficacy beliefs are related to subjective career success. Culié et al. (2014) indicate that organisational support plays a moderating role in the relationship between psychological mobility and career satisfaction.

It can be concluded that a boundaryless career perspective (see section 2.1.1.1) provides chances of freedom in the workplace to engage in psychological mobility, and proposes competencies that predict career success in a contemporary employment context (Hirschi, 2012). A value-driven and self-directed logic of a protean career often results in multiple career cycles, which allow for accommodation of work roles and family responsibilities, as well as

opportunities to create careers, which then allow women to experience career satisfaction. From literature, it is apparent that family responsibilities often interrupt employment and the career development of women (Patton & McMahon, 2014). In that view, the current study has focused on Holland's (1997) personality and occupational types, the ecological model (Cook et al., 2002) and the KCM (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005) in an attempt to gain an understanding of the career development of women.

7.1.1.2 Research aim 2: To conceptualise the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction as explained by theoretical models in the literature

The second aim, as stated above, was achieved in Chapter 3. On the basis of the literature review, the following conclusions were drawn:

- Psychosocial factors are multidimensional constructs encompassing various domains (psychological and social factors), which help to establish experiences, achievements and measures of success (Coetzee, 2014b; Suzuki & Takei, 2013). In the present study, psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy and perceived organisational and social support) may be regarded as essential psychosocial career meta-capabilities that may enhance the career satisfaction of professional women (Coetzee, 2014b).
- Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to understand and express their own emotions, recognise emotions in others, and regulate and use emotions as a basis for thinking to motivate adaptive behaviours (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Individuals who possess high emotional intelligence tend to perceive themselves as socially competent, they are likely to have quality personal relationships and are also viewed by others as interpersonally sensitive (Matthews et al., 2012). A study by Lopes et al. (2006) revealed that emotionally intelligent individuals received positive ratings of interpersonal facilitation from their peers and/or supervisors. Moreover, emotionally intelligent individuals seem able to manage social, personal and environmental changes successfully by coping realistically and flexibly with the immediate situation (Bar-On, 2006). Emotionally intelligent individuals could benefit from empathic understanding of others by adjusting their emotions and behaviour to promote career progression and achieve performance goals (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011). Emotionally

intelligent individuals seemingly succeed at communicating their ideas, goals and intentions in interesting and assertive ways (Zeidner et al., 2004).

- Individuals high in career adaptability actively construct their career life, while coping with the demands and challenges that they experience in their social and work environment (Santilli et al., 2014; Savickas, 2013). Highly adaptable people might have the capacity to engage proactively in the process of goal setting, initiating effort and achieving psychological success (Hall & Chandler, 2005). In an adverse career development environment, individuals with a strong sense of career adaptability tend to cope proactively with difficult environments and develop their career competence (Guo et al., 2014). Research found that career adaptability significantly explains the employees' level of satisfaction with their experiences of career and development opportunities (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015).
- Employees with low career preoccupations achieve work-life balance and flexibility, adapt to frequent transitions, cope with unexpected changes, and develop closer relationships with members of their work and social community (Coetzee, 2016; Savickas, 2013). The research by Coetzee (2017) found that career adaptation preoccupations (expectations about one's career outcomes) could largely be attributed to self-efficacious beliefs about one's social capital and goal-directedness. Employability-related concerns about adapting to changing contexts and new opportunities in the employment market (career adaptation preoccupations) are likely to be significantly associated with individuals' increased attachment to interests external to the current organisational job and career (Coetzee, 2015). Work/life adjustment preoccupations (concerns about settling down, reducing one's workload and achieving harmony between one's work and personal life or retiring) were found to be instrumental in explaining the proactive behaviours related to ingenuity and openness to change (Coetzee, 2016).
- Employees with high levels of self-efficacy beliefs think, feel, motivate themselves and act towards fulfilment of goals and aspirations (Bandura, 2000). These individuals are likely to set high career goals, put in extra effort, and pursue career strategies that lead to the attainment of those goals (Ballout, 2009). People with high levels of self-efficacy are motivated to engage in behaviours that help improve their learning, and they are likely to use that learning to perform better in the workplace and in due course increase their levels of job performance in organisations (Lunenburg, 2011). Furthermore, individuals with high levels of self-efficacy experience psychological well-being; they

convey confidence in difficult situations and approach difficult tasks as challenges to be conquered rather than as threats to be avoided (Behjat & Chowdhury, 2012; Dogan et al., 2013). High self-efficacy helps employees collect relevant information, make sound decisions and take appropriate actions, especially when under pressure (Adio & Popoola, 2010). The findings by Onyishi and Ogbodo (2012) indicate that, when employees feel confident about their ability to attain high levels of performance associated with intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes, they are likely to engage in behaviours that are proportionate with those outcomes.

- Employees' general perception that the organisation values and cares about their well-being obligates positive reciprocal work-related behaviours that are important to help the organisation reach its objectives and the expectation that improved performance will be rewarded (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Latif & Sher, 2012). According to Eisenberger et al. (2004), to be viewed highly by the organisation helps to meet employees' needs for approval, esteem and affiliation. Streicher et al. (2012) indicate that perceptions of justice and procedural fair conditions in organisations can foster cooperative, voluntary and constructive employee behaviour, such as intrinsic motivation to meet organisational goals. Employees who experience perceived organisational support are likely to believe that their employing organisation demonstrates a high level of caring and concern, which in turn, is likely to motivate them to reciprocate by being highly involved in the organisation and showing their readiness to work hard to accomplish the goals of the organisation (Narsudin et al., 2008). Consequently, perceived organisational support initiates a social exchange process where employees feel obligated to help the organisation achieve its goals and objectives, and they expect that increased efforts on behalf of the organisation will result in positive outcomes such as rewards (Kurtessis et al., 2015).
- Individuals with strong social support have sources such as family, friends or peers who provide confidence to overcome career obstacles and gain empowerment to make positive career decisions (Higgins, 2001). Individuals with high social support proactively manage their own careers by engaging in a variety of informal relational career support behaviours (personal, peer and network support) to enhance their well-being, career development and sense of success (Nabi, 2000; Saleem & Amin, 2013). Individuals with high perceived social support believe that they can count on their family and friends to provide quality assistance, such as listening, expressing warmth and affection, offering advice or any other way that provides well-being (Lakey, 2007). Employees with high social support experience emotional caring and friendship that

confirm a sense of self and increase a sense of control, belonging, competence and confidence in a professional role (Higgins, 2001; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Thoits, 2011).

It can be concluded that psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) are significant resources that are effective for career decision-making, adaptive functioning and supportive work dynamics towards fulfilment of goals and aspirations (Brown et al., 2003; Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Eisenberger et al., 2004; Lakey, 2007; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Schutte et al., 2009). Increased psychosocial resources play a significant role in motivating choice, ranging from achieving specific intrinsic or extrinsic ends (career satisfaction or promotion) to more self-actualising objectives (realising one's full potential) (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Lent & Brown, 2006).

7.1.1.3 Research aim 3: To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction, and explain the relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model

The third research aim, as stated above, was achieved in Chapter 4.

The literature revealed theoretical relationships between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and the career satisfaction construct.

Emotional intelligence plays a significant role in job opportunities, job skills, required skills and talents, career success and adaptation to various areas of life (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Mousavi et al., 2012). Elfenbein et al. (2007) found that emotional intelligence predicted a significant and consistent rise in effective workplace performance. Highly emotionally intelligent individuals find both work and relationships with other employees rewarding and satisfying (Matthews et al., 2012). The research findings of Lopes et al. (2006) revealed that emotionally intelligent individuals received greater merit increases and held higher company ranks than their counterparts. There seems to be a relationship between emotional intelligence and career satisfaction.

Research has shown that career adaptability predicts favourable career outcomes, such as employees' career satisfaction (Chan & Mai, 2015). The research findings of Guan et al. (2015)

indicated that career adaptability played a unique role in predicting salary and career satisfaction. Career adaptability appears to predict career satisfaction and self-rated career performance positively (Zacher, 2014a). Continuous adaptation to the work environment is essential to achieve work and career success (Ohme & Zacher, 2015). Career adaptability seems to be related to career outcomes, such as career satisfaction.

Presently, there is limited research on the framework of psychosocial career preoccupations as postulated by Coetzee (2015). Employees' psychosocial career preoccupations may potentially be a consequence of specific work-related needs (e.g., career satisfaction) within a specific socio-cultural work context (Coetzee, 2016). The research findings of Coetzee (2017) showed that career adaptation preoccupations (expectations about one's career outcomes) could largely be attributed to efficacious beliefs about one's social capital and goal-directedness.

The research findings of Abele and Spurk (2009) suggest that the higher the participants' self-efficacy and career advancement goals at career entry, the more they earned and the higher their employee status later on. Pachulicz et al. (2008) confirm that self-efficacy is positively related to career satisfaction, and individuals higher in this trait also report more subjective career success. Further, King (2004) indicates that individuals' self-efficacy and their desire for control over career outcomes will enable them to demonstrate career self-management behaviours, which in turn, may lead to attainment of desired career outcomes and satisfaction with careers. There seems to be a relationship between self-efficacy and career satisfaction.

Employees with high perceived organisational support were reported to have high levels of career satisfaction, which in turn, contributed to high levels of organisational citizenship behaviour and performance (Chen, 2011). Pachulicz et al. (2008) found that the more support a person perceived from the organisation, the higher the reported subjective career success. Latif and Sher (2012) found perceived organisational support and pay satisfaction to have a significant effect on career satisfaction. Barnett and Bradley (2007) found that organisational support was significantly related to employee career satisfaction. Perceived organisational support appears to be related to career satisfaction.

Social support could serve as a source to reduce experiences of stress or anxiety, and affords a career-related function for advice, support and information related to task accomplishment, career development and success (Terrion & Leonard, 2007). High levels of social support, such as informational, instrumental as well as emotional and appraisal support from family members, contributed to their career success (Lirio et al., 2007). Individuals with high levels

of social support tend to experience success in their careers (Jepson, 2010; Nabi, 2000). Research by Nabi (2001) suggested that social support in the form of peer support was strongly related to men's subjective career success, whereas personal support was strongly related to women's subjective career success. Employees who receive social support are likely to experience high levels of perceived organisational support, which in turn, enhance their opportunities for career advancement and satisfaction (Chen, 2010). There seems to be a relationship between social support and career satisfaction.

It can be concluded that psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) may be regarded as self-regulatory resources and supportive work dynamics which, when developed and expended, should enhance career satisfaction (Bandura, 2006). An increase in psychosocial career capabilities may generate a range of options to expand freedom of action, expend positive energy to persevere regardless of obstacles and motivate the self to achieve success (Coetzee & Harry, 2014).

7.1.1.4 Research aim 4: To conceptualise how individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) influence the manifestation of their psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their perception of career satisfaction

The fourth aim, as stated above, was attained in Chapter 4.

The following conclusions were drawn:

- The development of emotional intelligence appears to be influenced by age (El Badawy & Magdy, 2015), race (Pillay et al., 2013), education level (Amdurer et al., 2014) and gender (Fernandez-Berrocal, Cabello, & Castillo, 2012). Older employees are likely to have a strong sense of emotional intelligence (El Badawy & Magdy, 2015). Black individuals seem to have high perceptions of emotional intelligence (Pillay et al., 2013). People who are emotionally competent at the time of graduation could use some of their emotional competence to develop their careers, in which they are satisfied and feel successful (Amdurer et al., 2014). Women had high scores of emotional intelligence in emotional processes (Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012).

- Career adaptability development seems to be influenced by age (Zacher, 2014b), race (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2005), marital status (Ferreira, 2012), education level (Zacher, 2014b) and gender (Coetzee & Harry, 2015). Married participants had high levels of career adaptability in their careers or jobs (Ferreira, 2012). Black participants showed high levels of career adaptability (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015). Education level differentially predicted change over time in one or more of the four career adaptability dimensions (concern, control, curiosity and confidence) (Zacher, 2014b). Females had significantly higher levels of career adaptability than their male counterparts (Coetzee & Harry, 2015).
- There is a paucity of research on the framework of psychosocial career preoccupations as postulated by Coetzee (2015). Women in the early career (ages 24–35) will most likely base their career choices on their desires or concerns about career satisfaction (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005). Ismail et al. (2005) found that high-flyer women academics passed through specific and predictable career developmental life stages and were also promoted to the level of professor during the establishment and maintenance stages. Coetzee (2017) found that graduates were concerned about employability, adapting to changing contexts and adjusting the fit between their career needs and/or preferences and changing environment requirements (i.e., career adaptation preoccupations).
- The development of self-efficacy appears to be influenced by age and race (Amatucci & Crawley, 2011), marital status (Mashhady et al., 2012) and career stages (Abele & Spurk, 2009). Age and racial differences are significantly related to self-efficacy with older women and white women high in self-efficacy (Amatucci & Crawley, 2011). Married teachers' self-efficacy was significantly high, and increased over time and with years of experience (Mashhady et al., 2012). Self-efficacy at career entry had an influence on salary, salary change and hierarchical status (Abele & Spurk, 2009).
- Perceptions of organisational support appear to be influenced by age (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009; Kaur, 2017) and marital status (Khurshid & Anjum, 2012). Age is significantly related to perceived organisational support with elderly employees expressing high levels of perceived organisational support (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009; Kaur, 2017). Older individuals with opportunities to upgrade their skills and to acquire new skills perceived their organisation as supportive (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009). Married employees showed high perceived organisational support (Khurshid & Anjum, 2012).

- Perceptions of social support appear to be influenced by race (Sloan et al., 2013) and marital status (Nomaguchi, 2012). White employees showed high perceived social support (Sloan et al., 2013). In relation to marital status, findings indicate that marital status creates contexts that shape employed parents' perceived social support (Nomaguchi, 2012). Married women employees showed high perceived spousal support (Aycan & Eskin, 2005).
- Perceptions of career satisfaction appear to be influenced by age (Leigh et al., 2009), race (Yap et al., 2010), job level (Bakan & Buyukbese, 2013), income (Bakan & Buyukbese, 2013) and education (Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012). Older employees appeared likely to have strong experiences of career satisfaction (Leigh et al., 2009). Employees at low job levels appeared satisfied with their careers. Black employees seemed to be less satisfied with their careers than their white counterparts (Yap et al., 2010). Employees earning high income levels reported significantly high levels of career satisfaction (Bakan & Buyukbese, 2013). Employees with high qualifications appeared likely to have strong experiences of career satisfaction (Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012).

The individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) appeared to be influenced by biographical characteristics. In addition, various variables appeared to influence the degree of career satisfaction. Therefore, career counsellors, organisational psychologists and HR practitioners should take these variables into consideration when developing strategies for the career development and satisfaction of professional women.

7.1.1.5 Research aim 5: To critically evaluate the implications of a psychosocial profile for the contemporary career development practices of professional women

The fifth research aim, as stated above, was achieved in Chapter 3.

The following conclusions were drawn:

a) Practical implications of psychosocial resources at individual level

- Employees with a high sense of emotional intelligence seem able to understand and to regulate emotions effectively and constructively. They experience psychological well-

being and have the capacity to create mutually satisfying relationships (Bar-On, 2006; Rey et al., 2011). Through career counselling and employing specific strategies, individuals could benefit from an increased emotional understanding and expression of emotions in order to increase interpersonal effectiveness, achieving personal goals and realising their potential (Fambrough & Hart, 2008).

- Career adaptable employees are more likely to manage present, unpredictable and impending work and career challenges, which should have positive effects on their career satisfaction and performance (Zacher, 2014a). Assessment of individual adaptability competencies through career counselling enables practitioners to evaluate career-related needs and design interventions aimed at promoting successful adjustment to changing work conditions (Tolentino et al., 2014).
- Employees with a stronger sense of career preoccupations seem to experience concerns about employability, continuous learning and development, work-life integration and flexibility or developing closer ties with members of their work and social community, which in turn, could contribute to low levels of career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2015). Employees could be facilitated to explore the psychological needs underlying these preoccupations, identify future goals that represent career satisfaction and which help them engage in adaptive and change-supportive behaviours that will maximise personal growth or development and satisfaction (Coetzee, 2017).
- Employees with high self-efficacy tend to have greater confidence to perform or accomplish their goals and make decisions that translate into meaningful achievements (Adio & Popoola, 2010). Cultivating a stronger sense of self-efficacy with regard to specific career-relevant behaviours could enable employees to consider a wider range of alternatives realistically and thereby enhance effective decision-making to improve chances for advancement of goals and satisfaction (Hackett & Betz, 1981; Lunenburg, 2011).
- Perceived organisational support may enhance the individual's perceptions of being valued and supported by the organisation, which in turn, may lead to desired employee attitudes and behaviours, including job performance and trust, and subsequently to career satisfaction and valued rewards (Ballout, 2007).

- Individuals high in perceived support believe their social network includes someone willing to provide emotional support (i.e., empathy, active listening and encouragement) for their personal and career development (Jairam & Kahl, 2012; Oti, 2013).
- Cultivation of psychosocial resources may help to develop career-related efficacy and could aid outcome expectations for career advancement, goal accomplishment and overall satisfaction experienced from a chosen career (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Yap et al., 2010; Karavardar, 2014).

b) Practical implications of psychosocial resources at organisational level

- Emotionally intelligent individuals seemingly succeed at communicating their ideas, goals and intentions in interesting and assertive ways, thus making such individuals suited for specific occupational environments and contributing to effective leadership roles and organisational performance (Elfenbein et al., 2007; Zeidner et al., 2004). Emotional intelligence could be applied in employee selection, since it is an indicator of leadership effectiveness (empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationships) and of coping effectively with environmental demands and pressures (Bar-On, 2006).
- Career adaptability skills can be adopted as important instruments to resolve problems related to the development of professional competence and career development (Guo et al., 2014).
- Psychosocial preoccupations for stability and/or security, work-life balance, a sense of belonging and career development, when satisfied, predispose individuals to adaptive behaviours that enable them to develop to their full potential. They consequently engage in career development skills to enhance their competence and function optimally to improve organisational performance (Coetzee, 2016).
- A high sense of self-efficacy appears to promote work-related performance in terms of motivating different employee-related capabilities and organisational pursuits (Bandura, 2012). By developing self-efficacy functions, people could motivate and guide their efforts in improving performance on work-related tasks to achieve success (Bandura, 2004). An increase in positive beliefs or the reduction of debilitating beliefs may lead to high task performance and job performance (Lunenburg, 2011).

- Organisational distributive and procedural policies, as well as HR practices could perpetuate attitudinal biases and barriers that create unsupportive work environments, and by doing so, impede employees from performing effectively (Cross & Linehan, 2006). A supportive environment for career development, favourable work experiences, training and promotion opportunities and rewarding performance may enhance the individual's perceptions of being valued and supported by the organisation, which in turn, may lead to desired employee attitudes and behaviours and job performance (Ballout, 2007; De Vos et al., 2011).
- Individuals with low social support are more likely to experience low levels of physical health and emotional well-being (Osman et al., 2014). Workplace sensitivity to employees' family needs and support from supervisors and peers to cope with home-job conflict could improve employees' well-being and job performance (Nomaguchi, 2012).
- Increased career satisfaction could promote job and organisational performance (Karavardar, 2014). Employees satisfied with their careers are more committed to their work; they participate positively and more effectively in work activities, and are less likely to leave their organisation (Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014).

7.1.1.6 *Research aims 1 to 5*

The research aim below was achieved in chapter 2:

Research aim 1: To conceptualise the career development and success of women within the contemporary employment context

The research aim below was achieved in chapter 3:

Research aim 2: To conceptualise the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support), and career satisfaction as explained by theoretical models in the literature

The research aim below was achieved in chapter 4:

Research aim 3: To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of the psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction, and explain the relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model

The research aim below was achieved in chapters 3 and 4:

Research aim 4: To conceptualise how individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) influence the manifestation of their psychosocial profile (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their perception of career satisfaction

The research aim below was achieved in chapter 4:

Research aim 5: To evaluate the implications of a psychosocial profile for the contemporary career development practices of professional women critically

7.1.2 Conclusions regarding the empirical study

In the present study, following seven key aims were empirically explored:

1. To empirically investigate the nature of the statistical interrelationship between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context (H1)
2. To empirically assess whether individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predict their psychosocial attribute constructs and career satisfaction (H2)
3. To assess whether psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), as a composite set of latent independent variables, significantly relate to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction, as a composite set of latent dependent variables (H3)

4. To investigate empirically whether the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction (H4)
5. The hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile has a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model as based on the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors. (H5)
6. To empirically assess whether there is a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction (H6)
7. To empirically assess whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attribute constructs (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction factors (H7)
8. To formulate recommendations for industrial and organisational psychologists and human resource professionals for the contemporary career development practices of professional women, and to formulate suggestions for future research in the field. This task is addressed in this chapter.

7.1.2.1 Research aim 1: To investigate empirically the nature of the statistical interrelationship between individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction as manifested in a sample of professional women in the South African context

The empirical results of research aim 1 provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H1. The following overall conclusion was drawn in this regard:

Conclusion: The individuals' psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) are significantly related to their career satisfaction.

The elements relevant to the theoretical hypothesised psychosocial profile have significant associations that have implications for career development practices of professional women.

7.1.2.2 Research aim 2: To empirically assess whether individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) significantly predict their psychosocial attribute constructs and career satisfaction

The empirical results provided partial evidence for hypothesis H2.

Conclusion: When considering career development interventions for professional women, the following need to be considered:

- The role of age in explaining and understanding professional women's psychosocial career preoccupations, as well as their perceived organisational and social support experiences. Women 45 years and older perceived lower career preoccupations and higher organisational and social support than their younger counterparts.
- The role of race in explaining and understanding professional women's psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational support and career satisfaction experiences: The white race group perceived low career preoccupations and higher levels of POS and career satisfaction than their black counterparts.
- The role of marital status in explaining and understanding professional women's social support experiences: Married women perceived higher levels of social support from their social networks than their single, divorced or separated counterparts.
- The role of job level in explaining and understanding professional women's psychosocial career preoccupations, perceived organisational support and career satisfaction experiences: Women within the senior management job level groups (manager/senior manager/deputy director/director/CEO) had low levels of career preoccupations and perceived higher levels of organisational support and career satisfaction than their employee job level counterparts.
- The role of total monthly income in explaining and understanding professional women's career satisfaction experiences: Women who earned R50 000 and more perceived

higher levels of career satisfaction than their counterparts earning less than R15 000 total monthly income.

These findings point to a need to consider age, race, marital status, job level and total monthly income in the career development practices of professional women in the diverse South African context.

7.1.2.3 Research aim 3: To assess whether psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy), as a composite set of latent independent variables, significantly relate to perceived organisational and social support and career satisfaction, as a composite set of latent dependent variables

The empirical results provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H3.

Conclusion: Low career preoccupations (psychosocial career establishment, adaptation and work-life adjustment preoccupations) and high levels of managing own emotions (emotional intelligence), career control (career adaptability) and self-efficacy are significantly associated with higher levels of perceived organisational support and career satisfaction. Career development interventions should consider the development of psychological resources such as emotional intelligence, career adaptability, career preoccupations and self-efficacy for enhancing perceptions of the career development opportunities for professional women. This may enhance their experiences of subjective career success (career satisfaction).

7.1.2.4 Research aim 4: To investigate empirically whether the social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction

The empirical findings provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H4. The following overall conclusion in this regard can be drawn:

Conclusion: Professional women's psychological resources (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, career preoccupations and self-efficacy) are likely to enhance their levels of career satisfaction through addressing their need for organisational and social support. Therefore, career development interventions and active support from organisations and social

networks, which address women's unique needs are critical to a comprehensive and sustainable career development process.

7.1.2.5 Research aim 5: To assess whether the hypothesised theoretical psychosocial profile has a good fit with the data of the empirically manifested structural model as based on the overall inter-statistical relationship between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction factors

The empirical findings provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H5.

Conclusion: The results of the study added valuable new insights regarding how managing own emotions (emotional intelligence), career establishment preoccupations, career control (career adaptability), self-efficacy, and perceived organisational and family support influence the career satisfaction of professional women. Considering women's unique needs for career development could help them to identify their personal strengths and the psychosocial resources necessary to enhance subjective career success (career satisfaction). Insight into the role of psychosocial resources in helping women to manage their career development and advancement throughout their life/career stages should be important in the dynamic contemporary career environment. Hence, organisations and HR practitioners should design effective career development interventions to strengthen and develop women's psychosocial resources to enhance their career satisfaction.

7.1.2.6 Research aim 6: To assess empirically whether there is a significant interaction (moderating) effect between the biographical (moderating) variables (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and the psychosocial attributes in predicting career satisfaction

The empirical findings provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H6.

Conclusion: Career development interventions for professional women should consider the moderating role of race, marital status, number of children, job level and education level in enhancing their levels of career satisfaction. Race has an interplay with women's emotional intelligence and perceptions of organisational support in explaining their career satisfaction, while marital status and number of children play a significant role in strengthening the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and the career satisfaction of professional women. Furthermore, this study provides insight into the role of job level in explaining the interplay between the psychological resources (emotional intelligence and self-efficacy) and the career

satisfaction of professional women. Education level strengthened the relationship between emotional intelligence and the career satisfaction of professional women. The insights of this study could provide organisations and career counsellors with knowledge for designing new and effective interventions to assist women from different race, marital status, number of children, job level and education level groups in enhancing their career satisfaction.

7.1.2.7 Research aim 7: To assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction factors

The empirical findings provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H7.

Conclusion: Based on the empirical results, the following conclusions could be drawn:

Age

Women in the early career stage (25–44 years) tend to have higher levels of career preoccupations, perceptions of low organisational support and lower levels of career satisfaction than their older counterparts. These differences between early career and middle/late career stages need to be considered when designing career development interventions aimed at enhancing their career satisfaction. Organisations should also provide more career support and opportunities for career advancement, as well as cultivate young female talent through mentoring and coaching.

Race

Women from the African race group tend to be more likely to have higher levels of preoccupations/concerns about their careers (establishing opportunities for self-expression, personal growth and development, advancing in their careers in the present organisation, achieving a work-life balance, adaptive and change-supportive behaviours for career mobility and developing closer ties in the workplace) and lower levels of career satisfaction than their white counterparts.

Women from the Indian race group tend to experience lower levels of perceived organisational and social support than their African and white counterparts. They may have perceived that their organisations and social networks are not supportive of their career goals and development activities, which are important for their performance and career success (career satisfaction). Organisations should consider women's diverse and unique needs in developing interventions that aim to improve their perceptions for organisational and social network support for career development and advancement.

Marital status and number of children

Single women reported career concerns about career development and opportunities for career growth, along with lack of a supportive work environment which seemed to significantly hamper their career satisfaction (i.e., development of new skills, goals for income and advancement) when compared to their married counterparts. On the one hand, women without children also reported perceptions of lack organisational support for career advancement, which might have influenced their experiences of career satisfaction negatively when compared to their married counterparts. On the other hand, divorced/separated women reported lack of social support from their social networks when compared to their single and married counterparts. Organisational career support in addressing the concerns of single and divorced/separated women could assist in their achievement of career goals and increase their satisfaction with careers.

Job level

Although women in the executive job level reported low career concerns and increased satisfaction with their careers, they experienced less organisational and social support when compared to their counterparts. The findings point to a need for organisations to examine the work and non-work supportive needs of executive-level women (e.g., emotional support, work-family balance issues and interpersonal work relationships) in order to provide supportive social network practices that aim to boost perceptions of organisational and social support.

Total monthly income

Low income earning women reported high levels of self-efficacious beliefs and adaptive career functioning when compared to high income earning counterparts. However, they seemed to experience concerns about career development in the organisation, along with perceptions of

lack of organisational support for career development, which appeared to hamper their satisfaction with careers when compared to their high income earning counterparts.

Education levels

Although certificate/diploma-level women reported confidence in their ability to manage their own and others' emotions, they reported higher levels of career concerns when compared to their master's education level counterparts. In addition, degree-level women reported lack of organisational support and career satisfaction when compared to master's-level counterparts. The findings point to a need for the organisations to examine the career developmental concerns of certificate/diploma-level women and the importance of considering emotional intelligence in the career development context. Emotional intelligence is seen to provide the potential for self-awareness and work-interpersonal performance. It could be helpful for organisations to design appropriate interventions to increase the emotional intelligence capabilities of women. Organisations should provide career development opportunities to support the career goals and advancement of women with the aim of enhancing their career satisfaction.

Overall, the outcomes of the present study suggest that organisations should consider the dimensions of the individual characteristics (i.e., age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and examine the unique career needs of women when formulating career development interventions with the aim to enhance their career satisfaction. The findings also point to the need for organisations to provide career development opportunities which aim to meet the unique needs of women as they progress through different life/career stages to convey organisational support for the career development and satisfaction of women.

7.1.3 Conclusions relating to the central hypothesis

The central hypothesis, as specified in Chapter 1, states that the overall relationship dynamics between the constructs of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support (as a composite set of independent variables) and career satisfaction (as an dependent variable) will constitute a psychosocial profile that may be used to inform the contemporary career development practices of professional women.

It is proposed that social attributes (perceived organisational and social support) will significantly mediate the relationship between individuals' experiences/perceptions of their psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction.

Individuals' biographical characteristics (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) will significantly moderate the relationship between their psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction. Furthermore, individuals from different age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level groups may have different levels of psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support), and different experiences of career satisfaction. The literature review and empirical study have provided supportive evidence for the central hypothesis.

7.1.4 Conclusions relating to the field of industrial and organisational psychology (IOP) and career development theory

The inferences derived from the literature review and the empirical study contribute to the career development theory for women in the field of industrial and organisational psychology. The literature review has provided new insight into how women's psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and their career satisfaction experiences are related. In addition, professional women from various biographical groups (age, race, marital status, number of children job level, total monthly income and education level) differ significantly regarding their psychosocial attributes and their career satisfaction.

The empirical study has provided new insight into the relationship dynamics between the psychosocial-related attributes, biographical characteristics and the career satisfaction of professional women. This study has provided a new perspective for career development theory by establishing a mediation-based social and psychological resources/mechanisms framework that contribute to the career satisfaction of professional women. Perceived organisational and social support function as significant mechanisms in buffering the negative effect of high career preoccupations on levels of career satisfaction, as well as strengthening the links between emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy and the career satisfaction of professional women.

Based on the empirical study, a theoretical psychosocial profile has been constructed, indicating managing own emotions (emotional intelligence), career control (career adaptability), career establishment preoccupations (psychosocial career preoccupations), self-efficacy, organisational and family support resources as significant variables, which have contributed the most in predicting the career satisfaction of professional women. The findings of the present study have provided industrial and organisational psychology with a useful and novel theoretical framework for understanding the unique career development needs of women in order to design organisational supportive practices, which could increase women's career satisfaction and help them to expand their perspective on their career development as they progress through different life/career stages.

The results show that women's low career preoccupations and positive perceptions of emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy, as well as perceived organisational and social support are likely to predict high levels of career satisfaction. A study by Mousavi et al. (2012) has found that emotional intelligence plays a significant role in job opportunities, job skills, required skills and talents, and career success. Guan et al. (2015) have found that career adaptability plays a unique role in predicting salary and career satisfaction. Research has shown that employees' career preoccupations influence their job- and work-related attitudes, such as commitment and engagement (Coetzee, 2015). Pachulicz et al. (2008) found that the more support a person perceived from the organisation, the higher the reported subjective career success. Nabi (2001) found that personal support was strongly related to women's subjective career success.

Women in the early career stage (25–44 years) tend to have higher levels of career preoccupations, perceptions of low organisational support and lower levels of career satisfaction than their older counterparts. In addition, women from the African race group tend to be more likely to have higher levels of preoccupations/concerns about their careers and lower levels of career satisfaction than their white counterparts. Although women in the executive job level reported low career concerns and increased satisfaction with their careers, they experienced less organisational and social support when compared to their counterparts. Hence, it is recommended that organisations and HR practitioners take these findings into consideration when designing career development practices aimed at enhancing the career satisfaction of professional women.

These findings furthermore indicated that HR practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists should continue to pay attention to the psychometric properties of the measuring instruments (i.e., AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS) utilised in the present

study to ensure the reliability and validity of the instruments prior to using them. In this study, the reliability of the instruments was analysed, and conclusions drawn from this study indicated that the instruments showed generally acceptable levels of internal consistency reliability. Hence, additional information to that which is available in these instruments in the South African context was generated. Organisations should make use of the services of trained practitioners to ensure that the instruments utilised in this study are properly administered and interpreted in a fair and equitable way. A supportive environment and sensitivity are important when providing feedback to the individuals. In addition, feedback offered should be meaningful, understandable and courteous. Individual biographical characteristics should also be considered when formulating and implementing career development policies and programmes for professional women, as has been highlighted in the findings of the present study.

7.2 LIMITATIONS

Some limitations in terms of the literature review and empirical study have been identified.

7.2.1 Limitations of the literature review

Limitations of the literature review include a paucity of research in the South African context and globally on the relationship between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction. Although research is increasingly being done on the psychosocial attributes individually, few research studies have so far focused specifically on the relationship of these variables with career satisfaction in terms of the career development strategies.

An all-encompassing view of the factors influencing the career development of professional women could not be provided, as only seven variables pertaining to the construction of the psychosocial profile of professional women under study were considered. More factors may therefore need to be considered when developing career development strategies for professional women in the diverse South African context.

7.2.2 Limitations of the empirical study

Several limitations as follows should be considered in interpreting the results of the present study:

Firstly, the present results are based on a sample of predominantly women in the emerging to mid-career adulthood stage employed in the South African financial, engineering and human resource fields. The findings may not necessarily be generalised to professional women in other organisational fields, and future studies should maybe also consider men, given shifting roles of dual career couples.

A second limitation is the use of self-report measures (AES, CAAS, PCPS, NGSE, SPOS, MSPSS and CSS) as data collection tools. A certain amount of social desirability and acquiescent responding in self-report measures might affect the internal consistency of measures. However, acceptable internal consistency reliabilities were reported for six of the seven measuring instruments. Future studies should test for the internal consistency reliabilities of the emotional intelligence subscales, 'managing others' emotions' and 'utilisation of emotions'.

Thirdly, due to the career self-concept evolving with age, future longitudinal studies could also clarify the relationship dynamics between women's psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction as reported in this study, and may also provide evidence of the way in which the levels of these variables evolve over time when individuals transition from one career life stage to the next.

Fourth, the participants were predominantly represented by white women and future research should consider a more diverse group to assess whether the psychosocial attributes of women manifest in the same way or differently in varying individual biographical characteristics (i.e., age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level).

Fifth, this study utilised cross-sectional questionnaires to gather data at one point in time on all seven measures. This design makes it difficult to ascertain the causal direction of relationships between the psychosocial variables and career satisfaction and also gives no idea of the change that a group might take as would a longitudinal study. Hence, future research could utilise a longitudinal design to examine the influence of the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction over time.

Lastly, objective and subjective characteristics of career success are discrete, although interdependent. While it is possible that objective success influences how an individual subjectively experiences his or her career success, it is also possible that subjective experiences of success (career satisfaction) have a direct influence on how an individual's

objective success will develop. Therefore, the two measures of career success are intertwined or complement each other, since they tend to address the limitations that are not captured by each relevant measure of the construct, such as promotion versus work–life balance. Hence, future research could utilise a qualitative study using semi-structured interviews to allow for better understanding of the participants views on the career satisfaction concept.

Despite the limitations, the findings of this study has contributed to the current understanding of the unique career development needs and the career satisfaction of professional women in career construction theory approaches to career counselling and career development in the South African organisational context.

7.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The ethical rules, procedures and regulations of the research institution were adhered to. Ethical clearance (see ethics certificate attached in Appendix A) to conduct the research was also obtained from the institution through the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology at the University of South Africa. Permission to conduct the research was obtained from the three professional bodies, namely SAICA, ECSA and SABPP. The ethical considerations pertaining to the psychometric battery requires that the measuring instruments meet strict compliance to the Employment Equity Act No. 55 (1998) legislation regarding valid and reliable measures, including fair and unbiased selection practices when consulting findings on biographical and demographical indicators on career outcomes. Hence, the psychometric properties of the measuring instruments utilised in this study were considered (see section 5.2).

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, conclusions and the limitations of this study, the following recommendations for industrial and organisational psychology career development practices are made, including suggestions for future research studies:

7.4.1 Recommendations for the field of industrial and organisational psychology career development practices

The research findings and significant relationships that emerged from the present study could contribute to the development of the following individual and organisational interventions in terms of career development policies and programmes:

7.4.1.1 *Individual-level interventions*

- Organisations should provide emotional intelligence training to improve understanding of an employee's own emotions or the emotions of others. This could aid women in leadership positions to increase interpersonal effectiveness, career decision processes, planning for career development and setting career goals, which enhance their career satisfaction.
- Career counsellors could also use appropriate interventions to increase women's emotional intelligence management abilities in order to reduce or remove psychological barriers in career decision-making and choosing career goals, which contribute to their career advancement aimed at enhancing their career satisfaction.
- Assessment of individual adaptability competencies through career counselling enables practitioners to evaluate career-related needs and design interventions aimed at promoting successful adjustment to changing work conditions and career satisfaction.
- Career counsellors and HR practitioners may consider training interventions to increase a sense of control over career paths, responsibility for career planning and choice of career development opportunities. Individuals will be more confident that their career advancement and success are dependent on their own improved adaptive competencies and functioning.
- Career counsellors should assess individuals' adaptability competencies to evaluate career-related needs, and then design interventions aimed at promoting successful adjustment to changing work conditions. Increasing career adaptability skills is important for continuous adaptation to the work environment, as well as the achievement of career goals and success.
- Career counsellors could advise women on exploring the psychological needs underlying their career preoccupations, identifying future goals that represent career satisfaction and which help them engage in adaptive and change-supportive behaviours that will maximise personal growth or development and satisfaction.

- Formal career discussions concerning younger women's career preoccupations in the establishment life/career stage should be established to increase self-awareness about career interests, needs, concerns and goals in relation to organisational employability requirements. This could lower career preoccupations and increase career satisfaction of younger women.
- Organisations should provide women with opportunities to cultivate self-efficacy beliefs by assisting them to set achievable goals and motivate them to persevere to completion. Successes build a healthy belief in one's self-efficacy and individuals who have succeeded in job-related tasks are more likely to have more confidence to complete comparable tasks in the future.
- Organisations should provide coaching, goal setting, challenging assignments and supportive leadership interventions to enhance self-efficacy beliefs. By improving women's self-efficacy beliefs, they could have confidence in their capabilities to achieve career goals, which in turn, will enhance their satisfaction with their careers.
- Organisations should appreciate the unique needs of women and provide equal opportunities for career development. Supportive treatment and favourable work experiences create a supportive environment for career development aimed at enhancing career satisfaction.
- Organisations should encourage social networks for career development functions such as mentoring and coaching practices for emotional support (i.e. empathy, active listening and encouragement), advice and information sharing on career development opportunities and acquisition of tacit knowledge which could contribute to career development aimed at enhancing career satisfaction.
- The career development practices for women should take cognisance of biographical characteristics, especially age, race and job level. Differences between early career and middle/late career stages need to be considered when designing career development interventions aimed at enhancing their career satisfaction. Organisations should also provide more career support, opportunities for career advancement as well as cultivate young female talent through mentoring and coaching.

- Organisations should consider women's diverse unique needs in developing interventions that aim to improve their perceptions for organisational and social networks support for career development and advancement of all racial groups.
- Organisations need to examine the work and non-work supportive needs of executive level women (e.g., emotional support, work-family balance issues and interpersonal work relationships) in order to provide supportive social network practices that aim to boost perceptions of organisational and social support.

7.4.1.2 *Organisational-level interventions*

- Organisations should design career development practices that aim to lower the employees' career preoccupations, and strengthen and enhance the emotional intelligence, career adaptability, self-efficacy and the career satisfaction of professional women.
- Organisations should consider the unique needs of women (especially younger women with children) by providing a supportive workplace for career development and advancement aimed at enhancing their career satisfaction. It is important for organisations to also address women's needs for achieving work-life balance in career-planning activities and discussions. This could help lower career concerns about career development and enhance satisfaction with their careers.
- Organisations should also provide career guidance and information, learning opportunities and challenging work assignments, opportunities for development of new skills for young women in the establishment life/career stage. This could contribute to career development and advancement of young women aimed at career satisfaction.
- Organisations should offer career development opportunities to create more effective career planning programmes for mentoring, coaching and network opportunities that respond to women's needs to advance within the job or organisation. This could be facilitated through assessment and analysis of the career needs of women, identifying career aspirations and goals, establishing career goals and monitoring progress to enhance career advancement and success.
- Organisations should encourage co-worker relationships and supportive supervision of subordinates. Supportive supervisors have an effect on subordinates' willingness to

engage in development activities, which are critical for subordinate performance and career success.

- Organisations should create supportive flexible work arrangements to promote work-family balance and lessen potential breaks of employment, which could affect the career development and advancement of women.
- Organisations should create supportive work-family programmes and family-friendly policies that help women to manage balanced work-life demands.
- Organisations should provide social network and communication systems that promote access to information about career development, and they should also encourage work relationships that provide women with role models to help them cope with career goals and work-life balance. Workplace social networks provide a system of interpersonal relationships that offer information about career progression and provide friendships that make the workplace enjoyable.
- Organisations and HR practitioners should design effective career development interventions, which aim to strengthen and develop women's psychosocial resources, as well as enhance their career satisfaction.
- Organisations should provide workshops or seminars to promote career awareness for development opportunities, and disseminate information about various career possibilities for career development within and outside the organisation.
- Organisations should design fair and equitable career development opportunities to address the unique needs of women from diverse groups. This would increase perceptions of organisational support and enhance career satisfaction.
- Management should provide supervisory support for career development and to promote organisational career opportunities through designing and implementing a career development plan for employees.

7.4.2 Recommendations for future research

The findings of the study indicated a need for further research to explore the relationship between the psychosocial attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) and career satisfaction. In addition, future research should consider a more multi-culturally diverse group, including men, given the shifting roles of dual couples, to assess whether the psychosocial-related attributes and career satisfaction of women manifest similarly or differently in varying individual biographical characteristics in other organisational contexts.

The sample comprised predominantly married white women participants. It is recommended that future research studies utilise a sample that represents racial groups proportionately. The study used was a cross-sectional design, limited to a smaller sample of professional women and three professional bodies and also excluded men. A study by Yap et al. (2010) found that female respondents were found to have higher levels of career satisfaction than male respondents. Johlke et al. (2002) found that females experience significantly lower POS than males. Likewise, Khurshid and Anjum (2012) found that female teachers experience lower perceived organisational support than male teachers. Female participants had significantly higher levels of career adaptability than their male counterparts (Coetzee & Harry, 2015). Hence, a larger, randomised sample size which is more representative and from more professional bodies, including men, would help to achieve better generalisability of results.

Furthermore, considering that women's career self-concepts evolve over their life span as they encounter new situations and transitions in their lives, and that these could influence their psychosocial attributes, it may be useful to conduct a longitudinal study to deepen an understanding of the relationship between the women's psychosocial resources and career satisfaction over their life career.

A mixed-method (qualitative and quantitative designs) study could provide more insight into the relationship dynamics between the psychosocial attributes and career satisfaction. In addition, future research could include more psychosocial attributes, which would provide more valuable insight into the findings of this study. Lastly, future research could be beneficial to assist HR practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists to enhance the career success of employees at individual and organisational level.

7.5 EVALUATION OF THE RESEARCH

This study investigated the possibility of the existence of a relationship between the psychosocial-related attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support), biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and career satisfaction. The findings indicated that a relationship did exist between these variables and that they could positively influence the career development and satisfaction of professional women in organisations.

The study contributes to the field of industrial and organisational psychology at three levels, namely theoretical, empirical and practical levels.

7.5.1 Contribution at a theoretical level

The literature review indicated the existence of relationships between the psychosocial attributes, the individual biographical characteristics and career satisfaction. An increasingly more diverse workforce demands for career development initiatives to address the unique needs of women in a contemporary work environment. The psychosocial-related attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support) are considered important factors in enhancing the career satisfaction of professional women. The differences and similarities among biographical groups in terms of the psychosocial attributes, and career satisfaction should also be taken into account when developing career development interventions for professional women.

On a theoretical level, the literature review was valuable and contributed to the existing literature through the identification of the relationship that exists between the psychosocial-related attributes, biographical characteristics (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and career satisfaction. The review assisted the researcher to construct a theoretical psychosocial profile for the career development and satisfaction of professional women. The literature review further indicated that the psychosocial-related attributes and the biographical characteristics of individuals could act as predictors of career satisfaction of professional women.

The new insights obtained from the literature review, particularly on the psychosocial profile and its behavioural elements, could be used for career development and career satisfaction practices. The investigation of the individual biographical characteristics and how they affect

the development and manifestation of psychosocial-related variables has been recognised as valuable in understanding the career development and satisfaction of professional women in a diverse South African context.

7.5.2 Contribution at empirical level

On an empirical level, this study contributed to constructing an empirically tested psychosocial profile that could be used to inform career development practices of professional women in the diverse South African context. The study is potentially ground-breaking in its combination of various constructs and the use of several statistical procedures that have identified core variables that contribute most in explaining the role of social attributes in buffering the relationship between psychological attributes and career satisfaction in the multi-culturally diverse South African context.

The research findings suggest that perceived organisational and social support strengthened links between psychological attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy) and career satisfaction. Furthermore, the perceived organisational support variable seemed to lower career preoccupations and strengthen career satisfaction. As a result, career preoccupations or concerns about career development, when significantly reduced, increased career satisfaction through perceived organisational support.

In addition, there has been no prior research in the context of women's career development in South Africa on the specific relationship dynamics between psychosocial-related attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations, self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support), biographical variables (age, race, marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and career satisfaction.

Based on the findings of the empirical study, it can be concluded that this research study is original in terms of its findings regarding the overall and interrelationship between the specific constructs. This study also contributed to the current literature on the career development and satisfaction of women through finding that social support had no buffering effect on psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. The empirically tested psychosocial profile could be useful in enhancing the career success of professional women in the diverse South African context.

7.5.3 Contribution at practical level

On a practical level, the findings of this study contribute to existing literature about the career development needs and career satisfaction of professional women in the South African context. The findings on the elements of the empirically manifested psychosocial profile also increase the importance of understanding the unique career development needs of professional women in the career construction and life design counselling practices. The study provides new knowledge that extends and confirms career theory on the significant relationships between the psychosocial-related attributes (emotional intelligence, career adaptability, psychosocial career preoccupations and self-efficacy, perceived organisational and social support), biographical characteristics (age, race and marital status, number of children, job level, total monthly income and education level) and career satisfaction of professional women.

Perceived organisational support and social support functioned as significant mechanisms in buffering the negative effect of high career preoccupations on levels of career satisfaction, and strengthening the link between emotional intelligence, career adaptability and self-efficacy, and career satisfaction. In other words, when career preoccupations or concerns about career development are significantly reduced, individuals are likely to engage in proactive career self-management behaviours, take greater responsibility for their career choices and career opportunities, have confidence in their ability to accomplish career development goals and thus increase perceptions of career satisfaction.

However, the findings did not show that social support was likely to buffer the link between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. Significant mean differences were observed for age, race and job level groups regarding career preoccupations, perceived organisational support and career satisfaction. In addition, significant mean differences were observed for marital status, total monthly income and education level groups regarding career preoccupations, perceived organisational support and career satisfaction. In terms of these research findings, HR practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists should consider the psychosocial profile and biographical characteristics in career development programmes or support practices that would increase the career satisfaction of professional women.

Future research should consider a more multi-culturally diverse group, including men, given the shifting roles of dual couples, to assess whether the psychosocial-related attributes and

career satisfaction of women manifest similarly or differently in varying individual biographical characteristics in other organisational contexts.

In conclusion, the focus of this study was to determine how psychosocial-related attributes influence the career satisfaction of professional women. The findings have provided direction for future research into the psychosocial individual differences in relation to career satisfaction. Hence, these findings have significantly contributed to the existing body of knowledge on factors that affect women's career development and satisfaction within the South African context.

7.5.4 Critical reflection on doctorateness as a student

The results evidently suggest that the overall hypothesised psychosocial profile contributes to the career development and advancement practices in enhancing the career satisfaction of professional women in the diverse South African context. The researcher found that, despite the perceived socially constructed internal and external challenges (i.e., gender role stereotypes, family responsibilities and employment inequities), women are guided by their core values of freedom, personal growth and balance, as well as the confidence in their capabilities to achieve their career goals. The researcher also found that creating a balance for both work and non-work roles with the availability of sufficient support provided by the organisation and social networks should contribute to career advancement, achievement of career goals and satisfaction with the careers of professional women.

Throughout the present study, the researcher had personally gained the following new insights derived from the psychosocial profile, which enriched her life as a professional woman:

- The findings lend support for the buffering hypothesis of social attributes and showed that sources of social support (i.e., family, academic co-workers and the faculty where registered for the studies) and the organisation strengthened the links between the researcher's psychological resources and career satisfaction. For instance, the doctoral adviser and supervisor provided professional support of encouragement, subject matter expertise, high-quality feedback and critical thinking knowledge, which were instrumental in the successful completion of the doctoral studies.
- The researcher also gained new knowledge in terms of data analysis and reporting on statistics. The family provided emotional and instrumental support (i.e., assistance with housework and time and space for the doctoral studies), whereas the academic co-

workers acted as sound boards by allowing the researcher to vent about the doctoral challenges, were empathetic and ready to listen, acted as stress buffers by putting things in perspective, as well as shared their learned experiences in accomplishing their doctoral studies.

- Furthermore, the researcher is grateful to the organisation, which was extremely supportive in providing study leave and financial support to complete the doctoral studies.
- The researcher found that the psychological resources contributed to the career development and completion of the doctoral studies. Firstly, emotional intelligence particularly played a significant role in the ability to use emotions to manage the constructive feedback from the supervisor, as well as guiding her thinking and actions in the completion of the doctoral studies. Secondly, the researcher accessed and strengthened the career adaptability resources, which facilitated the capacity to take personal responsibility for gaining new knowledge and competencies, persisting and coping with the challenges of doctoral studies, as well as the confidence and positive orientation towards completing the doctoral studies. Thirdly, concerns or preoccupations about achieving harmony between doctoral studies and personal life were lowered by the supportive organisation (i.e., granting study leave) and the emotional support gained from family, friends and academic co-workers. Lastly, self-efficacy beliefs developed and reinforced from the researcher's previous successful completion of undergraduate and post-graduate studies, the motivation derived from the academic co-workers who completed their doctoral studies, encouragement from line managers and family to persist despite difficulties, as well as self-reliance on capabilities to cope with the demanding tasks of doctoral studies played a significant role in completion of the doctoral studies.

To conclude, the researcher learnt student supervisor skills, writing, analytical and critical reflection and problem-solving ability skills, as well as accessing social networks to achieve a work-life balance.

7.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the conclusions of the study in terms of both the theoretical and empirical aims. The potential limitations of both the theoretical and empirical study were discussed. Recommendations for future research were highlighted. An integration of the

research was provided, indicating the extent to which the findings of the study provided support for the relationship between the psychosocial-related attributes, the biographical characteristics and career satisfaction, and how this assisted in constructing the psychosocial profile of professional women in the South African context.

This chapter achieved the following research aim:

Research aim 8: To formulate recommendations for industrial and organisational psychologists and HR professionals for the contemporary career development practices of professional women and for possible future research based on the findings of this research project.

This finalises the research project.

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APPENDIX: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



CEMS/IOP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 28 January 2015

Ref #: 2015/CEMS/IOP/004

Name of applicant: Ndayi Takawira

Student #: 30521009

Staff #: N/A

Dear Ndayi Takawira

Decision: Ethics Approval

Name: Ndayi Takawira

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Supervisor: Prof Melinde Coetzee **Co-supervisor:** N/A

Proposal: Constructing a psychosocial profile for enhancing the career success of South African women professionals.

Qualification: Postgraduate degree/Non-degree output/Commissioned research

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the **CEMS/IOP** Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Final approval is granted.

For full approval: The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the CEMS/IOP ethics committee on 22 January 2015.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

- 1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
- 2) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the CEMS/IOP Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the



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existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.

- 3) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.

Note:

The reference number: **2015_CEMS/IOP_004** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication [e.g. Webmail, E-mail messages, letters] with the intended research participants, as well as with the CEMS/IOP RERC.

Kind regards,



Rectangular Snip

Dr Sonja Grobler

Chair: IOP Research Ethics Committee

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